A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GENERAL AND SPECIFIC LEVELS OF ASPIRATION OF ETHIOPIAN AND INDIAN DISADVANTAGED AND ADVANTAGED ADOLESCENTS

ABSTRACT

THESIS

SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

Doctor of Philosophy

IN

PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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Under the Supervision of

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ABSTRACT

Level of aspiration is the standard a person hopes in a given performance. It is an important factor in the future achievement and attainment of individuals. The development of aspirations is influenced by background, environmental and personality variables.

The purpose of the present study was to compare the general and specific levels of aspiration of Ethiopian and Indian disadvantaged and advantaged groups of adolescents. Three background variables - SES, sex, and religious affiliation - that may put groups of individuals at disadvantage were considered as independent variables.

Based on the research literature reviewed, the following research hypotheses were formulated.

Socio-economically disadvantaged groups were expected to score lower than their advantaged counterparts on the measures of general and specific aspiration levels.

Girls were expected to score lower than boys on the measures of general and specific levels of aspirations.

Muslim groups were also expected to score lower than Hindu and Christian groups on the measures of general and specific levels of aspirations.

Further, specific questions were asked concerning the aspiration levels of the two countries groups of adolescents.

From Aligarh (India) and Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), a total of 512 subjects were selected by means of stratified random sampling technique.

Disadvantaged and advantaged groups were identified on the bases of their parents' educational levels and occupational statuses, family income and quality of schools attended. Each comparison group was balanced by sex and religion.

The L.A. Coding Test (Ansari and Ansari, 1964), which is simply a letter substitution to arithmetic symbols, was administered to measure the general levels of aspiration. From the responses, I-bids, goal-discrepancies and shifts were calculated as indices of the different dimensions of general level of aspiration.

Grewal's (1975) Occupational Aspiration Scale was administered to the Indian subjects and its slightly adapted form was used for Ethiopian subjects. An Educational Aspiration Scale was developed and validated for the purpose of the present research.

Data was analysed using ANOVA and t-test. Analyses of the various comparisons revealed that:

In both countries, the socio-economically disadvantaged groups scored lower I-bids, higher goal-discrepancies, lower usual shifts, higher rigidity and unusual shifts and lower educational and occupational aspirations when compared with their advantaged counterparts of their respective countries. All the differences were statistically significant. The results were interpreted as that the disadvantaged groups are more likely to be less realistic, less flexible and more rigid and confused which they revealed in their goal-setting behaviour as compared to the advantaged groups.

In India, except for occupational aspirations, girls and boys did not significantly differ in the other measures of aspirations, indicating that girls are appearing to close in the gap with boys in terms of level of aspiration.

Ethiopian sampled girls were found to significantly score lower I-bids, higher goal-discrepancy and lower educational and occupational aspirations than their male counterparts. The gap was found much wider between the disadvantaged boys and girls.

In both countries, differences in the level of aspiration by the factor of religion were not statistically significant.

When Indian and Ethiopian adolescents were compared, some significant differences were found - Indian adolescents being more flexible and aspiring to higher educational levels. The observed differences were largely due to the differences between the disadvantaged Ethiopian and disadvantaged Indian groups. Ethiopian disadvantaged group appears to be more affected by the conditions of their country than the Ethiopian advantaged counterparts.

Based on the findings and the discussion that followed, suggestions for interventions and for future research are provided.

Tsehaie Jemberu Tedla

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Dedicated

to

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Certificate

Certified that the thesis entitled **A Comparative Study of General and Specific Levels of Aspiration of Ethiopian and Indian Disadvantaged and Advantaged Adolescents** has been completed by **Tsehaie Jemberu Tedla** under my guidance. The work done by him has much relevance to the society. I am satisfied with his work and recommend that the thesis be submitted for evaluation for the award of **Doctor of Philosophy** in Psychology, of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, India.

Mahmood S. Khan
Supervisor

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Tsehaie Jembere Tedla

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Chapter-I

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Level of Aspiration:

Aspirations are said to be strong desires to reach something high or great (Haas, 1992). According to Lewin et al (1944), psychological problems, "especially those in the fields of motivation and personalty, inevitability involve goals and goal directed behaviour". Adler (1925), emphasized that everyone has a "life plan", a purpose or goal which determines his/her reactions. This life plan is generally developed early in life as a result of certain relationships between the person and his/her physical social environment.

Multon, Heppner, and Lapan (1995), have also proposed personalty variables (both cognitive and affective), to be related to goals. In their explanation on the purpose of goals on achievement motivation, Miller, et al. (1996), said that goals in achievement settings revolve around the pursuit of competence, i.e. level of aspiration.

Dembo, a student of Lwein, is the pioneer to formulate the concept of 'Level of Aspiration', which is the English translation of the German word 'Anspruchsniveau', which means the level of performance that an individual expects of herself/himself (cf. Gardner 1940; Ali, 1975; Khan, 1986). It refers to the goal that an individual sets for himself/herself. However, while doing so, she/he is seldom guided entirely by considerations which are realistic in nature. Level of

aspiration has received considerable attention from the investigators who worked in areas of personalty, social psychology, clinical and experimental psychology.

Dembo, in the course of an investigation of anger, employed experimental situations that produce frustration as a means of evoking anger. This was accomplished by requiring the subject to perform on some task which was either extremely difficult or completely impossible. During the course of her observations. she discovered that some of her subjects. unable to attain the difficult goal set by the experimenter, set intermediate level goals of their own which were easier than, but a step towards the expected goal. This sub-goal, Dembo termed, the subject's *Momentary Level of Aspiration*. Though she did not pursue into the phenomenon that she implicitly observed, it was nevertheless, the psychological mechanism called level of aspiration which her subjects had resorted to cope with a threatening situation. By setting a goal of lower difficulty level. in this manner, the subjects were able to avoid the frustration that may result from the failure of attempting the unattainable goals set by the experimenter. Lewin, et al (1944), termed the distance between the two goals as inner discrepancy:

The credit for conducting the first and extensive studies on level of aspiration is given to another student of Lewin. Hoppe, by subsequent researchers (cf. Gardner. 1940: Pareek. et al 1966, Ali,

1975; Khan, 1986). Hoppe's understanding of the term *level of aspiration* is quoted from Gardner (1940), in the following passage:

> *The subject ... always undertakes the task with certain demands (Anspiruchen), which can change in the course of activity. The totality of these constantly shifting, now indefinite, now precise, expectations, goal settings or demands in connection with one's own future performance, we shall term the level of aspiration of the subject. (P.61).*

After defining success as subject's attainment of intermediate goals regardless of whether or not the subject has achieved a perfect score or the experimenter's set goals and failure as subjects performance not coming up to his/her momentary level of aspiration, Hoppe suggested that success performance shifts the level of aspiration upward and failure experience may likely to lower the level of aspiration.

Another important observation by Hoppe is the marked individual differences in level of aspiration even in simple laboratory tasks. Some subjects were found to set higher levels of aspiration well above their level of performance, while others were observed to play safe by setting lower or intermediate goals within easy reach, probably satisfying the subjective feeling of "better than ... expected". Such individual differences in level of aspiration, according to Hoppe, were reflections of differences in characteristics of subjects which are referred to as ambition. prudence. self-confidence and courage to face reality.

Hoppe's method for studying level of aspiration was inferential - the simultaneous use of three of the following lines of evidence: 1) The spontaneous remarks of the subject, 2) the occurrence of success and failure experience, and 3) the way the subject 'gets at' task.

Subsequent researchers, while adhering to the basic concept of level of aspiration, questioned the inferential techniques for the reasons of objectivity. Hausmann (1933) told his subjects to make a 'bid' before each trial on the task. He penalized the subjects for overbidding and gave no credit for underbidding. However, like Hoppe, he too heavily relied on the inferences drawn from the subjects' verbal and motor responses for determining their level of aspiration.

Juknat is reported to devise a more precise method (cf. Gardner, 1940). Ten paper and pencil mazes were arranged in order of difficulty and presented to the subjects. As the size of a maze was larger with increasing difficulty, the subjects could easily recognize the pattern of the difficulty of the maze they wished and start working on it. The selected maze revealed the subjects' level of aspiration.

Gardner (1940), while recognizing the advancement of this method over Hoppe's argued that such a method will not indicate the level of aspiration as was understood by Hoppe (i.e. individuals true inner goals, aims and expectations). This is because, according to Gardner, both verbal and nonverbal expressions of a subject may not be valid

indicators of the individual's inner attitudes. Cherished inner goals, when expressed for public inspection, are commonly 'edited' by the individual. Thus, Gardner suggested either the method be dropped or the meaning of the term level of aspiration be redefined as "that level in a difficulty scale at which the subject is willing to test himself in the presence of the experimenter".

Frank (1935,1941) is credited for redefining level of aspiration as "the level of future performance in a familiar task which an individual knowing his level of past performance in that task explicitly undertakes to reach". This action oriented definition is, of course, a departure from the original conception held by Hoppe since it emphasized the explicit undertaking whereas the latter was an implicit goal-setting.

The method used by Frank was that the subject after each trial in a given task was told his/her performance score and was asked to state how well he/she intended to do next. This sequence was repeated a number of times in the course of the experiment. The procedure yielded a quantitative score, implying that level of aspiration was a definite and precise goal. On the other hand, Hoppe's conception of the phenomenon was the totality of highly fluctuant and a constellation of now indefinite and now precise goals where the subject is not sure about - thus the departure.

Gardner (1940) has discussed his scepticism of the finding of the 'true' level of aspiration since an individual in an activity may concurrently entertain aims that may be manifold, fluctuant, ephemeral and differing qualitatively as well as quantitatively. Therefore, he argues, one cannot distil true aspirations out of the maelstrom of aims. His argument led him to assert that level of aspiration should have one and only one meaning. "It can only refer to quantitative indicators concerning his future performance in an activity." In experimental situations, two important features are further demanded by Gardner - the subject should make "some public indication of his aims and that he make this in quantitative terms". However Gardner overlooked an important point while defining level of aspiration (Khan, 1986). An individual while undertaking to perform a task, may entertain quite a number of goals, differing in height, but all related to the same task.

This deadlock was solved by Lewin et al. (1944). According to Lewin, et al., the level of aspiration presupposes a goal which has an inner structure. This means, a number of more or less realistic goal levels are present within the whole goal structure of the individual. "Goal levels within one goal structure may include a high dream goal, a somewhat more realistic wish goal, .. a low level goal which a person might hit if luck were against him". Somewhere in this continuum of goal levels lies what the author called the action goal. This action goal is what the person "tries for" at that time. It was

described by them as "the criterion for the level of aspiration for an individual at a given time", in which researchers like Frank attempted to measure. The authors have further indicated that the action goal of the individual may sometimes come closer to his/her ideal goal, sometimes the gap may be wider. There after, the action goal based concept has come to be accepted as the standard definition of level of aspiration, and thus, Frank's definition of the concept.

However, the method of requiring the subject to state the level of the goal she/he expects to achieve in a task and then making her/him work for it in the presence of an experimenter was questioned for the fear that subjects may resort to defensive behaviours distorting their true level of aspiration. This was felt by Frank (1941) himself. "In experimental situations ... the level of aspiration situation is usually a treat to the subject's self-esteem in that he must not exhibit his ability before someone else." According to Frank, subjects attempt to meet this threat both by performing well and by manipulating their level of aspiration. Similar concerns were also raised by many researchers (e.g. Gould, 1938; Gardner, 1940; Rotter, 1954).

Pareek and Chattopadhay (1964), in order to circumvent the factor of defensiveness, which was thought inherent in the procedure of Frank, developed a semi-structured situation to enable their subjects (farmers) project their true level of aspiration. Sinha (1969) too,

developed a semi-projective technique centred around an imaginary story of a farmer and employed a more refined procedure for scoring.

Such projective techniques may be free from the influence of defensive tendencies in case the method of Frank really brought them into operation. However, taking the scores of the projected standard of achievement as a measure of level of aspiration is so remote into the future, hence liable to bring the factor of wish into operation, which could make the level of aspiration somewhat less realistic (Khan, 1986). In addition, the influence of past performance on such distant goal may be very weak. Such arguments imply that projective methods may not be better substitutes for Frank's method of direct verbal expression.

It is documented that the characteristics and dispositions of the individual do affect his/her level of aspiration (Rotter, 1954; Holt, 1946; Chance, 1960). But the question is whether the defensive tendencies are inherent in Frank's method of measuring level of aspiration. The issue was investigated by Ali (1976). He took 48 randomly selected undergraduate students and employed a 'within subject design' where the same subjects served under experimental (private) and control (public) conditions with in a span of two weeks. The term 'public' was used to mean as the presence of the experimenter alone. Two sets of tasks (letter-symbol substitution tests)

of the same nature were used. Under public condition, one set was used and subjects were to provide their identity and declare their expectations and performance scores in front of the near by sitting experimenter. In the private condition, the experimenter sat at a distant place and only was there to inform the time limits. After the session was over, the subject was told to throw the separate response sheet in a waste paper basket which all willingly did. Secret marks on the response sheets helped to identify the subjects' identity. Data was analysed using goal-discrepancy and shifts scores. The results of t-tests of the mean-discrepancy scores of public condition (mean = 3.440) and private condition (mean = 3.112) revealed statistically nonsignificant differences. Similarly, differences in the shifts measures were nonsignificant. Based on the findings, it was concluded that the "presence of the experimenter with full opportunity to see or observe what the subjects do, neither evokes any defensive tendency in them nor makes any other kind of effect on their goal setting behaviour". The results showed that the arguments against the use of Frank's method for the reason of experimenter effects were unfounded.

Thus, Frank's method of measuring level of aspiration with his operational definition that conforms to Lewin's concept is said to remain the standard definition of level of aspiration.

Several subsequent researchers used a variety of instruments to measure level of aspiration directly and indirectly as well. For

example, Hurlok (1967), has reviewed the most frequently used indirect methods for studying level of aspiration: Studies of wishes, studies of ideals, studies of resolutions, and laboratory experiments.

Hurlock (1967), has made a distinction in her definitions of the terms aspiration and level of aspiration. "Aspiration means", she stated, "a longing for what is above one, with advancement at its end". That is, a goal the individual sets for him/herself in a task which has intense personal significance, or in which the person is ego-involved. On the other hand, level of aspiration is defined as "the standard a person expects and hopes to reach in a given performance". It is the "discrepancy between his achieved and his stated goals". From these definitions we can observe that the difference between the definitions of the two terms is in the degree of operationality. The definition for level of aspiration is readily measurable. However, quite a number of recent investigators used the terms level of aspiration and aspiration to imply similar message.

Hurlock (1974) divides aspiration into three categories: Negative and positive aspirations, immediate and remote aspirations and realistic and unrealistic aspirations. Lewin et al (1944) have proposed how the level of these aspirations, is determined by the individual. Using Escolana's "resultant valence theory", level of aspiration was formulated as an apparent discrepancy between the tendency to set up higher goals

and the tendency to parsimony. A goal may contain attractiveness (positive valence) and disagreeableness (negative valence). The more difficult the task, the higher the positive valence (and vice versa), but the probability of attaining success diminishes. Thus, level of aspiration will be the resultant combination of valances of success and failure and the probability of success and failure.

Based on Hoppe's notions, Frank (1935), has elaborated that success and failure (i.e. the relation of level of aspiration to past performance), depended on three needs: 1) The need to keep the level of aspiration high, 2) The need to make the level of aspiration nearer to future level of performance, and 3) The need to avoid failure. Frank suggested that the relative strength of these three needs depends on both environmental and personality factors.

Another point worth mentioning in this discussion is the generality of level of aspiration. Hoppe was said to be aware of the problem of generality and tried to demonstrate the consistency of the behaviour over different individuals (Lewin, et al, 1944). However, the first systematic study of generality of level of aspiration was conducted by Frank (1935). His basic hypothesis was that certain types of behaviour of level of aspiration express personality traits. To this end, Frank attempted to discover whether individual differences in level of aspiration 1) persist in time and 2) manifest themselves unchanged

through a variety of situations. Three groups of students were taken and three tasks - printing, spatial relation, and quitos - were performed, two tasks for each group. Correlations of discrepancy scores for the two different sessions (i.e. time) on the same task ranged from .57 to .75 for the tasks of printing and spacial relations. The correlation for quitos was very much lower. Correlations of the same session for scores of printing and spatial relations yielded from .50 to .65, where as correlations involving quitos was negligible. This was explained by the irreality of the task (quitos were more of a play). The results led him to conclude that level of aspiration (as measured by D-scores) in a given task "represents a relatively permanent characteristic of personality." Gould (1939), using six different tasks, three given in one session and remaining three in another, found inter-correlations among the tasks scores ranging from .44 to .04 with a median correlation being .29. When the scores of tasks of the same session were calculated the median inter-correlation went up to .40. Gould's correlations, although lower than those obtained by Frank, still indicate some tendency toward consistency.

Heathers (1942), varied three factors of objective situation to determine their influence on the degree of generality - the scale in which the performance was presented to the subject, the shape of the curve which the series of performance followed, and the motivation of subjects. Prearranged series of false performance scores were reported

to each subject on each task and was asked what score she/he was "going to try to make in the next trial". Five tasks were used: digit-symbol substitution, letter-code substitution, mental multiplications, addition and card-sorting. Scores were correlated for two tasks at a time under the different/similar conditions. Her results indicated that for similar conditions, there were high correlations between the different tasks. As the conditions change, significant differences were found in some while some other variations produced no pronounced differences. This was also true of the condition - degree of motivation. The generality correlation coefficient for the highly motivated group was very high (.90), and was significantly different with the generality score of the less motivated group (.84) in any two different tasks during day 1. However, in day 2, this difference was not significant. Such results led Heathers to conclude as "the similarity of a subject's level of aspiration in two situations depends upon the similarity of the two situations to the individual as well as upon his personalty organization".

To shade some light on the problem of the generality of level of aspiration, Pareek, Kumar, and Chattopadhyay (1966), carried out a factor analytic study using a sample of farmers. Data on the level of aspiration of the farmers were collected using the projective technique devised by two of the authors. After factor extraction was done on the data and orthogonal rotation was carried out, three factors that

accounted for 70% of the variance in the level of aspiration, appeared in the scene. The third factor that accounted for 31% of the variance and has showed high loadings in all the aspects of level of aspiration was called the *General Factor* of farmers level of aspiration. The second factor that had high loadings in education, production and *livestock (22% of the variance), was termed as the factor of Achievement Orientation.* The third factor that accounted for 17% of the variance had high loadings on material possessions, house, and income. It was called the factor of *Security Orientation.* Thus, we can infer that the researchers have arrived at a general level of aspiration and two specific levels of aspiration construct.

A number of recent investigators also indicated the generality and specificity of the level of aspiration construct. Plucker (1998) identified two specific students aspirations i) Inspiration, which means becoming involved in an activity for its intrinsic value and enjoyment and ii) Ambition, a sense of goal orientation which can be expressed as goals for the future.

On the basis of 'self discrepancy' theory Higgins, Shah, and Friedman (1997) differentiated between two types of goals and related them to different kinds of emotional responses to goal attainment. The specific goals were: i) A goal having a positive - outcome focus involving a promotion focus on advancement and accomplishments, and

ii) a goal having a negative-outcome focus on safety, responsibilities and obligations.

Miller et al (1996) similarly identified two specific goals: i) Learning goals, which use improvement of skill or knowledge as evaluative criterion, and ii) ego-oriented goals, which use relative standing among others as evaluative criterion.

Using factor analytic techniques, Kaser and Rayan (1993; 1996) developed an Aspiration Index containing fourteen sub-scales. The index measures seven specific levels of aspirations with their degree of importance. 1) Aspiration for financial success, 2) for social recognition, 3) for appealing appearance, 4) for self-acceptance, 5) for affiliation, 6) for community feeling, and 7) for physical fitness.

Other researchers also attempted to study the specific levels of aspirations. Jafri (1992) studied the level of social aspiration, economic aspiration, and educational aspiration of undergraduate women students in Aligarh. Social, educational, political, economic and religious aspirations of Rajputs were investigated by Hussain (1996).

The most widely studied specific level of aspirations among adolescents are educational and occupational aspirations, as these two areas are of immense importance for the later status attainment of the youth in societies where they live. Phillips and Asbury (1993), conceptualized level of educational aspiration as "an internalized

advance estimate of eventual educational attainment." Wilson and Wilson (1992) describe educational aspiration as "the level of educational attainment that one desires to achieve."

Level of occupational aspiration can similarly be understood as the prestige/status level of the occupation one desires to attain. Rojewiski (1995) defined career aspiration as "orientation toward a particular career goal." Farmer and Chung (1995) conceptualized career aspiration as one of the dimensions of career motivation which refers to the "prestige or socio-economic level of a person's ideal occupation."

The measurement of the above two specific levels of aspiration is mostly done using self-report instruments. Many researchers directly ask students the educational level they want to reach. Rojewiski and Yang (1997) determined the level of educational aspiration by asking respondents to denote the highest level (category) of education they thought they would achieve. Wilson and Wilson (1992) measured educational level of aspiration by the question: "What is the lowest level of education you would be satisfied with?" From nine response categories, responses were dichotomized into high and low aspirations. Similarly, Solorzano (1992) dichotomized the responses into two from the question: "As things stand now, how far in the school do you think you will get?" In Chung, Loeb, and Gonzo (1996) study, educational level of aspiration was assessed by the respondents

selection of one of the five levels: a) No degree b) Vocational certificate or associate degree c) Bachelor's degree d) Master's degree e) Ph.d. or equivalent. This dichotomy is said to be in line with Farmer's (1985).

Similar procedures are used for vocational aspirations. Researches ask students to indicate or select their chosen vocations and the responses are coded using the region's occupational codes.

A single item developed by Farmer (1985), was used to measure career level of aspiration: "What occupation do you expect to end up in?". Similarly, Rojewiski (1995) obtained occupational aspirations by asking the question: "It is interesting to think about the occupation most desirable to you, without having to consider limiting factors like money, ability, or opportunities needed to obtain further education and training. This may sound impossible, but if you were completely free to choose any job you wanted, what would it be?" Some others provide a list of occupations for adolescents to choose. Seventeen separate occupational categories were provided and students were asked to choose the job they expected to have at 30 years of age (Rojewiski and Yang, 1997). Similar list of occupations to which students might aspire were provided for selection by Chung, Loeb,and Gonzo (1996).

Still, some others measure occupational aspirations by administering standardized scales. King and Multon (1996), administered

"My Vocational Situation" - a 20-item self report instrument, consisting of four different scales. Lapan and Jingelski (1992), administered the "Career Aspiration Scale" that was developed to assess the degree to which a person aspires to achieve leadership or advanced position within a chosen field.

We can see from the above review that unlike the measurement of general level of aspiration, levels of educational and career aspirations are measured outside the laboratory as they mainly deal with remote rather than immediate aspirations.

Psycho-social Disadvantage:

The terms disadvantage, underprivileged, deprived, under class, and even 'at risk' are often used by researchers and also by the laymen to refer to a group of people in a society who have experienced backward and un nurturing environment for a long period of time. However these terms have some semantic differences. The Webster's Dictionary of the English language defines these terms as follows. Disadvantaged means "having less than what is regarded as basic or minimal for decent living, as money, social equality, etc". The underprivileged are those "who are deprived socially and economically of enjoying certain fundamental rights theoretically possessed by all members of a community or a nation". This meaning obviously puts the underprivileged in a position of disadvantage when compared with

the privileged. The definitions show that the terms are relative. What is considered as a decent living in one society may be viewed as an underprivilege in another. Even in one society, a person may be advantaged in one aspect and underprivileged in another.

To deprive is "to take something away, from divert; to keep from acquiring, using, or enjoying." Thus, the deprived group is the one who is denied of conditions essential for proper progress. This may be done consciously by the dominant group or may be the result of tradition. The term 'under class' is also being applied to those group of people who are entrapped in poverty and living in social isolation, whose survival is without the hope of steady work (Brantlinger, 1992). For the disadvantaged children, the future is bleak and the term *at risk* is assigned to them by some (Cress, 1992).

While these different terms may indicate some semantic differences, in fact, they imply the same message - a marked deficiency of essential conditions for reasonable living, progress, and development.

Singh and Sinha (1986) understood social deprivation as a dispossession or loss of privileges, opportunities, material goods and others. It may occur, they said, with reference to three interrelated sets of basic needs: physical, psychological, and sociocultural. Gaur and Sen (1989) termed those children who live in unfavourable conditions or

circumstances, who experienced insufficient opportunity for growth and who did not receive deliberate recognition for their developmental needs as disadvantaged or deprived. Hunt (in Tripathi and Misra, 1976), is reported to have equated deprivation with failure to provide opportunity to have experiences. Ujjwalarani (1993) termed social disadvantage as being born in one of the communities that is at the lower levels of these social hierarchy. Poverty, more specifically, paucity of income, was viewed by the investigator as economic disadvantage.

Karna and Panjiar (1997) conceptualized environmental deficit as the deprivation of "a child of the opportunity to maximize in his biological endowments and compels him to live a life of abject poverty with all its evil consequences", including intelligence.

The role of the environment in facilitating or depriving the development of human beings - be it physical, intellectual, social, personality, etc. is stressed by many.

Sinha (1977) emphasized that the type of environment in which a person grows provides the necessary sensory inputs, stimulation and experiential base for the overall development of the individual. He conceptualized the environment in terms of two-tier concentric layers. The upper, which is a more visible layer, comprises individual's home, school, peer groups, and the like - each providing three dimensions:

physical space and materials, social roles, and relationships. The surrounding layer includes the physical environment and the institutional setting of the person.

A similar view of the environment, is presented by Bronfenbrenner (1989). The child is viewed as developing within a complex system of the surrounding environment - four levels of concentric circles: (i) The *Microsystem* is the innermost level of the environment which refers to activities and interaction patterns in the child's immediate surrounding. (ii) The *Mesosystem* refers to connections among microsystem such as home, school and neighbourhood. (iii) The *Ecosystem* is the third layer which refers to social settings that do not contain children but that affect their experiences in immediate settings such as parents' work place or health or social services in the community. (iv) The *Macrosystem* is the outermost level which is not a specific context but instead refers to the values, laws, and customs of a particular culture. According to Bronfenbrenner, the environment is seen as a dynamic ever changing force where it affects the child's development and to some extent affected by the child.

These views assert that all aspects of the environment, both the visible and the near, and those that play behind the screen interact in promoting/deterring individual's development. Overcrowded and inadequate space in the home, lack of toys and other materials, the quality of schooling, poor interpersonal relations at home and in

school, the poverty level and the living conditions of the neighbourhood, the attitudes of significant others, the restrictions and prejudices imposed systemically and structually, will deprive the child of proper cognitive growth and functioning, motivational competence and proper personality development. Deprivation not only makes the life of a person miserable but also restricts his/her abilities to improve, since impoverished living denies the experiences necessary for cognitive and affective growth.

The importance of experiences and constant interaction with the environment is stressed by almost all prominent prychologists. Freud (1920) laid emphasis on the significance of early experience in the development of personality character. Piaget (1969) has argued that major cognitive advances take place as children act directly on the physical world, discover the shortcomings of their current ways of thinking and revise them to create better adjustment with external reality. Bardura's (1977) social learning theory also accepts the role of the social environment for adequate real and vicarious models to be imitated by children.

Quite a number of research findings indicated a high degree of relationship between environmental deprivation and cognition, intelligence, and scholastic achievement. As cognition or cognitive processes refer to all processes by which sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered and used (Neisser 1967), that

includes all mental activities - remembering, symbolising, categorising, problem solving, fantasizing, and even dreaming (Blank, 1990), it is reasonable to expect relationships between deprivation and various forms of cognition, intelligence and many other correlates. However, when explaining the relationships, the old problem of nurture vs. nature surfaces.

Artur Jenson (1969, 1985) repeatedly showed that differences in intelligence scores are more of the genetic make-up of the individual or group. Jensen differentiated between two kinds of intelligence - Level I and Level II. Level I refers to items emphasizing short term and rote memory. Level II involves abstract reasoning and problem solving - items correlated to Spearman's 'g' factor, such as vocabulary, verbal comprehension, spacial visualization and figure matrices. Findings of Jenson's studies indicated that Black-White and social class differences in IQ scores are largely due to level II abilities. The groups are almost the same in Level I intelligence. Furthermore, Jensen indicated that among level II abilities, Black children do worst on the least culturally loaded fluid-type items (e.g. figure matrices) and were better on crystalized tasks (such as vocabulary). Therefore, he concluded that Blacks are least well endowed with higher-order forms of intelligence.

More recently, Darolia and Chandel (1997) have arrived at findings similar to Jensen's explanation. They administered what they

claimed to be culture fair tests of intelligence and a socio-economic status scale to a group of 40 high school students. Their results showed no significant difference among high and low socio-economic status groups. This was because, the authors explained, in the Indian setup, SES is not the sole outcome of genetic composition. Thus, lower levels intelligence can not be attributed to social deprivation, implying that the observed low intelligence scores of Jensen's Blacks is not because of their social disadvantage but their heredity.

On the other side, there are a large number of investigators that reported differences in IQ of the subjects by race and social class and that attributed the major proportion of the variance to the degree of deprivation.

Jachack and Khandai (1983), to test Jensen's theory in Indian context, sampled children on the basis of their levels-I and II scores and grouped them in to three classes: High on Level I and II, high on level I but low on level II, low on levels I and II. The groups were compared with regard to six major home-environmental variables - SES, living arrangement, parental aspiration, parent-child interaction, mass media, and nutrition. Results showed that intellectually less endowed groups were also disadvantaged in all the six home environment variables. Though their findings are parallel with Jenson's, they attributed the variance more to environmental deprivation as there may be less genetic differences in the Indian context.

Tripath and Misra (1976) attempted to discover a quantitative relationship between deprivation and relative efficiency in various types of cognitive processes such as depth perception, perceptual identification and conceptualization. They selected a sample of 645 subjects and administered the Prolonged Deprivation Scale. In addition, they administered four tests that measure cognitive processes. Significant but negative relations were observed between deprivation scores and cognitive performance scores. This led the authors to conclude that deprivation experienced by the individual in various spheres of life restricts the growth of cognitive skills.

A some what related finding was reported by Misra and Tiwary (1985). Several cognitive measures were administered to 300 children who were selected from inferior and superior schools in rural and urban areas. The results showed that residential background had more differential effect on the development of girls while school quality was important for boys.

An experiment was conducted on 189 children using toys, blocks and stories. Frustration was used as independent variable and story construction as dependent variable. Superiority of high socio-economic status group over low SES group was observed in the "productivity" and "planning" of the stories in both experimental (frustration) and control groups (Verma and Sinha, 1977). Enriched social environment,

varied information sources, richer diet and better physical environment were the likely reasons for the superior performance of the high SES children.

Mohanty (1980) selected 100 boys, half of whom were socio-culturally disadvantaged and the remaining half advantaged. A test of intelligence (Raven Progressive Matrices) and a short term memory test were administered. ANOVA results showed that advantaged boys significantly scored higher than the less advantaged boys. Here, the main difference with Jensen's studies is the significant differences found in the short term memory among the two groups. Absence of order, organization, plan, predictable structure and task orientation as well as minimal motivation in the lower class homes were suggested as explanations, rather than heredity. Another important finding was that as the subjects were selected across grades, the gap in intelligence scores widened with age.

More recently, Karna and Panjiar (1997) selected 'Mushar' children who are deprived class and 'Kayestha' children who are from the middle class and administered an intelligence test, enquired on their health and looked at the students' school achievement records. The average IQ of Mushar and Kayastha children were 87 and 111 respectively, a significant difference between the two groups. For adolescents, the difference widened to 72 for low SES and 112 for high SES groups, showing that prolonged deprivation sharply lowered

IQ scores. Achievement and health conditions were also significantly different for the two groups in favour of the advantaged groups.

Five social stratification by caste were constructed among 800 college students. Significant intelligence score differences were observed between the two extreme groups of social classes (Pandey, 1974).

Similar finding was reported by Sinha and Shukla (1974). Two groups of 125 children each from Indian nurseries and orphanages were selected. The test was pictorial depth perception. Intelligence was correlated with all the six scores. When intelligence was controlled, the retarding effects of deprivation on the scores was nil with 3-4 years old children. But at higher age levels, differences widened showing the effect of prolonged deprivation. Lack of heterogeneity and absence of stimulation in orphanages were attributed to the findings.

Many other findings also indicated the adverse effects of disadvantage on intelligence. Social deprivation strongly predicted both intelligence and educational achievement (Singh and Sinha, 1986). Mentally retarded and low scoring children on intelligence tests were found to score high on Prolonged Deprivation Scale (Gaur and Sen, 1989). Non-tribals (advantaged) were more creative than tribals (disadvantaged). Private schools students (advantaged) were more creative than public schools students (Kumar and Kumar, 1994). Academic achievement was found to be a function of the degree of

deprivation/SES (Gopal, 1970; Chatterji and Mukeherjee, 1972). In a test of reasoning, high school students of unskilled parents were found to perform much less than their counterparts belonging to parents in the professional services (Kanth and Prasad, 1967).

The strong relationships between cognitive abilities and language skills is agreed by the prominent psycholosysts, despite the differences which one is primary. Thought and language are viewed by behaviourists as identical. Vigotsky distinguished between inner speech and overt speech and considered their relations with thinking. Still some others (e.g. Whorf) hold that thought is dependent on language, while some contend that language depends on thought (cf. Kellogg, 1995). However, almost all agree that language and thought are closely inter-linked. In language learning, children acquire the four components: phonology, semantics, grammar and pragmatics, which they combine to flexible communication system. The influence of environment on these skills can readily be inferred from the behaviourist theory of language (Skinner, 1957). A child grown in deprived environment would not adequately acquire the necessary stimulation (i.e. reinforcement) from parents and others, who themselves could not be good models due to their poor language. Even the nativist perspective (Chomsky, 1957), despite biological emphasis, appreciate the role environmental input for language development.

Krishna (1979), conducted a study to determine the effect of socio-cultural background on vocabulary in Hindi. He reported that students belonging to higher strata families spoke and wrote words of Hindi correctly. But the result was completely different in case lower families. It is documented that verbal ability and academic achievement are positively and highly correlated. Reading ability was found to be a function of home background and intelligence for a sample of 60 children (Gupta and Veeraghavan, 1987).

Ethnic minority families often foster unique language skills that do not match the expectations of classroom and testing situations. Heath (1989), by observing low-income Black homes, found that adults asked Black children very different kinds of questions than is typical in White middle-class families. From an early age, White parents ask knowledge training questions that resemble classroom situations. Black parents asked questions that call for elaborate responses about whole events but that had no single right answers. The Black children, according to Heath, developed complex verbal skills at home, but these worked poorly when they go to school.

Arguments and empirical studies in favour of environmental disadvantage as a strong factor for lowered intelligence and achievement are substantial. When poor children fostering in poor families were adopted to middle-class families, their IQ have been found to be higher when compared with the control group. Scarr and

Weingberg (1976) gave IQ tests to over 100 adopted Black children. The White adopting parents have above average intelligence, occupational statuses and educational levels than the biological Black parents. The IQ scores of the children was averaged at 110, 20 points above the mean of the children growing in low income Black communities. They concluded that it was environment, not heredity that accounted to Black children's typically depressed intelligence test scores.

Moore (1986) compared test taking behaviour and parent-child interaction of two groups of Black adoptees - one growing in White and the other growing in Black middle-class families. Tested between 7 and 10 years of age, the traditionally adopted children did well, attaining a mean score of 104. But the IQ score of the trans-racially adopted counterparts was much higher, averaging 117.

The review of status studies by Scott-Jones (1984) noted that family socio-economic characteristics were generally found to significantly relate to educational performance variables, while White's (1982) meta-analysis of 200 studies correlated about .22 with individual student achievement. When schools were taken as units of analysis (aggregate achievement by results over schools), the correlation between SES and mean achievements increased to .79.

A number of research reports have also shown that the motivation,

attitudes, morality, etc. of individuals are also affected by environmental disadvantage. Middle-class students possessed significantly higher self-concept scores (Pal and Tiwari, 1984; Singh, 1982) than the disadvantaged students. Middle-class college girls showed diversified interests and extra curricular activities than their less fortunate female counterparts (Sharma, 1979). SES as measured by income, significant differences were found on economic, political and social values among rich and poor adolescents (Hafeez and Hafeez, 1982). Using a moral concept development test that measures truth, duty, responsibility, judgement, discrimination between good and bad, sympathy, respect, obedience, helpfulness and honesty, Kothari (1983) found out that adolescents from parents of higher educational background scored significantly high on all dimensions than their peers from parents of poorer educational background.

Similarly, poor home environment was found to accelerate the occurrence of more frequent emotional disturbance among adolescents when compared to normal distribution (Dhoundlyal, 1984). Psychopatic tendency and SES were negatively related (Helode and Kapai, 1986). Advantaged undergraduate female students demonstrated more emotional stability, sociability, and thoughtfulness than the disadvantaged girls (Sharma, 1980). Low SES adolescents showed inwardly directed aggression, exhibited more ego-defensive responses, and were very poor in self-disclosure (Pathak and Rostagi, 1980).

Differences between the disadvantaged and the advantaged groups are also reported with regard to other dimensions of behaviour and personality, such as problem intensity (Sudha and Trith, 1980); escapist attitudes (Sharma, 1970); anxiety (Hussain, 1979; Gunthey and Sinha, 1983); adjustment (Rami, 1979; Srivastava, 1992); approval motive (Ujjawalarani, 1983); risk taking behaviour (Gupta and Arora, 1982); Prejudice (Khalique, 1982); needs (Dhillon and Acharya, 1985).

The above discussion indicates that environmental deprivation has far reaching consequences on the all round developmental aspects of an individual. This is not to undermine the role of heredity but to emphasize the influence of disadvantage. The suggestions of Agrawal (1997) is worth to be kept in mind. He argued that the logic used by environmentalists is flawed - a "sociologist's" fallacy" - a fallacy of assuming that any environmental difference between individuals and groups reveals a purely environmental influence for predicting IQ difference, i.e. a socio-economic difference in intelligence must be purely environmental rather than partly genetic.

Criteria for Identifying the Disadvantaged and Advantaged:

In India as well as in Western countries, researches have developed a number of measures that could be used as criteria to differentiate the disadvantage from the advantaged. The criteria used are so vast and varied that it may sometimes be difficult to distil the

main features. However, we can broadly classify them into two categories- i) single factor ii) multiple factors. Again, among those who use multiple criteria, some use composite scores (sums, averages, etc) while others use the different components of disadvantage separately in their analysis.

The single factor criteria is based on such considerations as social grouping of people in social, ethnic, religious, caste, living areas, income, etc. The assumption behind the use of single measures is that due to the social and structural pattern that exists in a given system, certain segment that is considered disadvantaged in the considered criteria will also be disadvantaged in many other dimensions of disadvantage. This means that high correlations exist between the various forms of deprivation. For instance, it is well documented elsewhere that African Americans are not only subjected to racial disadvantage but also they are in the bottom line economically, socially and educationally.

A number of investigations both in the US and India have used single criterion for identifying the disadvantaged groups for their studies. Phipps (1995) identified the deprived on the basis of participation in free school lunch programmes. Residential area was used by Cook and others (1986). Living quarters, was used by Brantlinger (1992). The following is a sample of single criterion used

by Indian scholars: Religion - Hindus vs Muslims (Husain, 1979); institutionalization - nurseries vs orphanages (Sinha and Shukla, 1974); Caste - Foreward caste vs Backward caste vs Harijan (Gupta and Arora, 1982); Mushhar vs Kayastha (Karna and Panjar, 1997); father's occupation (Kanth and Prasad, 1967); income (Rami, 1979; Hafeez and Hafeez, 1982); father's educational level (Kothari, 1983).

Though the use of single criterion may be comfortable for ease of measurement and for some cultural settings, as the degree of deprivation and the effect of the different components may differ, it seems less appropriate for making generalizations in many cases.

Other investigators systematically considered a number of variables for making distinctions between the advantaged and disadvantaged groups. The main argument is that single criterion is not adequate for identifying the deprived/privileged, since there are wide areas of disadvantage. For example, Tripathi and Misra (1976) contended that members of a particular group or community are not subjected to identical interactions. The various variables that affect these groups can not be isolated and their contributions on individual's psychological functions can not be quantified. Therefore, the authors suggested, deprivation be "treated globally and should include all aspects of life in a specified natural setting for determining its level and should be conceived as a hypothetical construct referring to all possible aspects of experiential input an individual has received during his life time".

The authors have developed a Prolonged Deprivation Scale that assess fifteen factors. In these global/multidimensional approaches, a number of social, psychological, and economical aspects are assessed but no attempt is usually done to consider each aspect separately.

In India a number of scales that measure deprivation, home background, or socio-economic status are already in use. The prolonged deprivation scale was used by Gaur and Sen (1989); a Home Environment Scale by Dhoundlayl (1984). Many researchers also use SES scales. Singh and Saxena's Socio-Economic scale by Pal and Tiwari (1984); Kuppuswamy's SES scale by Dhillon and Acharya (1985), Srivastava (1992), Gopal (1970); Sharma's SES scale by Sharma (1980); Joshi and Tiwari's SES scale by Gunthey and Sinha (1983); etc.

In Western countries too, SES is often used as an index for deprivation. Composite scores of two or more of the following: family income, father's educational level, mother's educational level, father's occupational status, mother's occupational status are often used by many (Solorzano, 1992; Walker and Sutherland, 1993; Rojewiski and Yang, 1997; Marjoribanks, 1997).

Other investigators, while measuring more than one dimensions of disadvantage (i.e. multidimensional factors), have attempted to estimate the amount of variance contributed by each component in their

analyses. House (1981) developed a framework of what he called the 'components' and 'proximity' principles. The components principle suggests that researchers explore the effects of social class using separate measures of different dimensions of class. House argued that the use of composite measures of social class is only appropriate when there is theoretical guidance in developing such a measure. In the absence of a theory which specifically calls for the use of composite measures of class, he suggested that using component measures is more fruitful since they will not obscure the effects of the different dimensions of social class.

There are a number of investigators, both American and Indian, that considered social components of disadvantaged/advantaged statuses and studied their effects separately on the outcomes of their interests. Demographic surveys that asses different background variables such as sex, income, parent's education, parent's occupation etc. were gathered and their influence treated separately (King and Multon, 1996; Chung Loeb and Gonzo, 1996). Father's level of education and mother's educational level, were used separately as measures of SES (Farmer and Chung, 1995). Race and other five components of SES - family income, educational and occupational level of head of household, head of household unemployed, welfare - were measured and their separate effects studied by Triplett and Jarjura (1997). Race and family income were separately considered by (Karraker, 1992). Ethnicity, father's

education and mother's educational levels were measured and their contribution of variance to aspiration estimated (Hosler and stage, 1992).

Similarly, Indian investigators have measured different components of disadvantage and their separate effects analysed. Jachack and Kandi (1983), in their study of the effect of home environmental variables on intelligence scores used six separate variables - SES, living arrangement, parent child interaction, mass media and nutrition. Caste for social disadvantage and income for economic disadvantage by Ujjawalarani (1993). The separate effects of caste and school quality were considered by Kumar and Kumar (1994). To study the effect of certain SES factors on scholastic achievement, Chatterji and Mukherjee (1972) used eight measures of SES - number of children, family size, family income, parental educational level, father's occupation, private tutor, helper in lessons and study room at home were considered separately. Parental monthly income and parental education were studied for their separate effects of college girls' aspirations (Jafri, 1992).

From the above brief review, we can infer that despite the difference in approach for identifying the disadvantaged/advantaged sections in a society or community, two main indicators come to the front - ethnicity/race/caste/religion, and socioeconomic status (family income, parents' educational and occupational levels and quality of schooling).

Chapter-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter relevant studies are reviewed and presented in a systematic manner keeping in view the objectives of the present research. As the literature on this area is quite extensive, an attempt is made to group the studies in accordance with the criteria of disadvantage. Four major background variables - Socio-economic status, race/ethnicity/caste/religion, gender and locality that are widely used as strong indicators of disadvantage/ advantage are reviewed. In addition, school and home environmental variables and some personality factors found influencing the aspirations are also reviewed.

Under each topic, the studies that reported significant differences between advantaged and disadvantaged groups (the advantaged having higher level of aspiration) are first discussed followed by explanations suggested for the differences. Then, research findings that yielded insignificant differences and/or significant differences (here the disadvantaged having higher level of aspiration) are discussed.

Socio-Economic Status:

One of the earliest studies that attempted to relate level of aspiration with background factors was that of Gould's (1941). On the basis of six unrelated tasks (tests of level of aspiration), 81

male undergraduate students were divided into two extreme groups - high(H) and Low(L) - by the size of the average discrepancy scores obtained. The two groups were compared with respect to a number of family background factors. Results revealed that both economically and socially, the 'L' group were in more favoured position than the 'H' group. The 'L' group came from predominantly protestant American background of high economic status, 57 percent of them having high income. The majority of the fathers in this group were 'Professionals'. In addition, 57 percent of the fathers have college degrees and above. In contrast, in the 'H' group, 55 percent of the fathers are foreign born, 60 percent have very low income and 55 percent belong to minority religious groups. Differences were also observed in the two groups' salary expectations. Socio-economic background, which is an essential attribute of being privileged or underprivileged affects the degree of realism in level of aspiration. According to Gould, people coming from low socio-economic status suffer from a sense of insecurity which finds its expression in their setting of unrealistically higher goals.

Chaubey (1971) studied the risk-taking and level of aspiration of high, middle and low socio-economic class of people from developed and undeveloped villages. Middle class subjects of developed villages were found to be of intermediate risk taking

and showed higher level of aspiration than the lower socio-economic group. That is, the level of aspiration of the middle class subjects was more realistic than their counterparts.

Muthaya (1971), using open-ended questionnaire and ladder test to measure the level of aspiration of farmers has shown that with increase in the socio-economic level, the aspiration level also tended to increase (r = .4). But the fact that the correlation was not high indicated that there may be frequent divergence from this trend. However, on the ladder test, the correlation was higher (r = .68). The results were interpreted to mean that those of higher socio-economic status were more realistic and more motivated to achieve than those of low socio-economic status.

Swaliha (1979) correlated level of aspiration as measured by goal-discrepancy with socio-economic status and achievement. The results showed that the higher the socio-econmic level, the lower the goal-discrepancy and the higher the need for achievement. This means that children drawn from higher socio-economic families have stronger motivation to achieve and set their aspiration not too high in comparison to children coming from lower socio-economic families.

Rath and Samanth (1975 in Jarfi, 1992) have used economic conditions, caste, parental education, and locality as criteria for

drawing the privileged and underprivileged. They maintained that socio-economic status and educational surroundings, apart from low caste, are the major factors making the child privileged or underprivileged. The results of their study have indicated that children hailing from privileged groups showed higher level of aspiration as compared to the underprivileged groups.

Khan's (1986) study of the level of aspiration of advantaged and disadvantaged children has a direct bearing to the problem of the present study. Three kinds of disadvantages based on socio-economic status, religion and sex were considered. A total of 600 children were selected using a stratified random sampling technique. The criteria used for identifying the disadvantaged/ advantaged group of children were type of school, locality of residence, caste, income, education and occupation of parents. The L.A. Coding Test (Ansari and Ansari, 1964) was used as a tool for measuring of level of aspiration. The patterns of goal-setting behaviour were analysed using three independent variables: a) Initial Bids (I-Bids), b) goal-discrepancy and c) shifts. The findings of the study showed that: a) Disadvantaged children made significantly lower I-bids, indicating the tendency towards cautions and failure avoidance. b) The advantaged children neither set the goal very high nor low but of a level closer to and somewhat moderately above the level of past performance, while

the disadvantaged children set the goal low or very high more frequently. c) The comparison of shifts of the two groups also revealed that while the majority of advantaged children showed usual shifts, the majority of disadvantaged manifested either no shift or unusual shifts. This finding indicates that the disadvantaged were more rigid and their flexibility more erratic.

A comparison of perceptions and aspirations of women college students in J & K also resulted in similar findings. Using a questionnaire, Jabeen (1993) observed that students hailing from higher economic and social background reported higher level of aspirations than their counterparts hailing from parents of lower socio-economic status.

Specific levels of aspiration were also found to be affected by the social and economical background of the subjects. The studies conducted by many researchers revealed that socio-economic status emerged as a major factor in influencing the level of educational and career aspiration of adolescents.

Rojewiski and Yang (1997) studied select influences on adolescents' occupational aspirations. The National Education Longitudinal Survey of 1988 (NELS:1988) database was used. A sample of 25,000 adolescents attending 1,052 schools was followed at 2-year intervals for the three critical points in the

career development process - early, mid, and late adolescence. Family background, locus of control and self-esteem were measured using a questionnaire. Occupational aspirations were assessed by asking students to indicate the job they would like to have from a listing of separate occupational categories. In their linear structural relationships (LISREL) modelling analysis, the structural coefficients for social demographic variables indicated that socio-economic status had significant effects on adolescents' occupational aspirations in all the three points (i.e. grades 8, 10 & 12). Adolescents from higher socio-economic status reported higher level of aspiration.

In a comparison of career aspirations between inner-city boys (very low socio-economic status) and middle-class children (2nd to 8th graders), Cook, et al. (1996) indicated that the more advantaged boys reported significantly higher level of aspiration than their less fortunate inner-city counterparts and that the gap between aspirations and expectations was always greater for inner-city boys.

McDonald and Jessel (1992) first identified ten schools whose students indicated as having either high or low occupational attitudes. Then, they studied the background and personal characteristics of 7th and 8th grade students.

Discriminant analysis of data revealed that those who were members of high aspiring group tended to reside in parent intact and in higher socio-economic families, tended to have higher levels of self-esteem, and attained higher cognitive vocational complexity than the students with lower vocational aspirations. This finding led the authors to conclude that the young adolescents "seemed to have already been influenced by membership in a given social class".

In their attempt to compare the aspirations of youth for themselves and for their country, Braungart and Braungart (1996) administered a scale on college students. The results showed that although the students reported higher levels of aspirations, the more privileged students indicated very high career aspirations (to be famous, having prestigious jobs, etc.), where as others were less grandiose in their ambitions (e.g. having interesting jobs).

Solorzano's (1992) analysis of a subset group (n=19,000) taken from NELS:1988, that investigated whether the "cultural deficit model" works for different groups - by socio-economic status, race and gender - showed that socio-economic status significantly predicted students' (8th graders) and parents' educational and occupational aspirations. The higher the socio-economic status, the higher was the level of aspiration.

Similar findings were also reported by other researchers. Rural high school seniors who were in the academic track were also from higher socio-economic families and reported significantly higher educational and occupational aspirations than those from lower social and economic groups (McCraken, Barcinas, and Wims 1991). Father's occupational statuses have predicted Black students career aspirations (Chung, Loeb and Gonzo, 1996).

A number of Indian scholars have also arrived at similar findings. Ahmad (1968, in Hussain, 1996), in his study of the social background of women undergraduates in Delhi University revealed that most of the students come to college without definite aim. He further found out that girls coming from educated and economically well off families are modern in their outlook and had higher job aspirations.

Swaminathan and Parvathi (1983), in their comparisons of adolescents' occupational aspirations, sampled 180 adolescents half of whom were born from working mothers (teachers) and the remaining half from housewives. Interview and Grewal's occupational aspiration scale were used. The t-test comparison of data from the two groups indicated that the adolescents of the working mothers had significantly higher level of occupational aspirations than those of the non-working mothers.

Jafri (1992) compared the educational, social and economic aspirations of advantaged and disadvantaged college girls. Aspirations were measured using a questionnaire. Analysis of data showed that girls from higher income groups exhibited greater preference for economic, social, and educational aspiration as compared to the lower income groups. Girls with parents of higher education also reported greater preference in all the three areas of aspirations and values than their peers whose fathers were less educated.

Family socio-economic status significantly influencing the students' educational aspirations is widely reported. Strong positive relationship between socio-economic status and educational aspirations was observed by Haas (1992).

In a regression analysis conducted by Karraker (1992) to see the effect of socio-economic status on adolescent girls educational plans, mothers' educational status and family income were found to be significant predictors.

Triplett and Jarjura (1997) attempted to determine the effect of educational expectation as a factor mediating the "class-gender-delinquency" relationship. They surveyed a large national sample of adolescents (14-18 year olds). Results showed that out of five measures, three measures - family income, educational

level of household head, and occupational prestige level of the head of the household were positively correlated to youth's educational expectations.

In their path model of student aspirations to college, Hossler and Stage (1992), have reported that the influence of parents' education level was strong throughout the model. Parental educational level had a significant direct effect on student educational aspirations and a significant indirect effect on the level of aspirations mediated by such variables as parental expectations, students' GPA, and students' school activity.

High School boys' family socio-economic status was significantly related to post-high school choice. Boys from higher socio-economic status showed intense desire to go to college, where as those from the lower social status chose to join the military/work contexts after high school (Owens, 1992). Similarly, parents' educational level significantly affected adolescents' educational aspirations (Wilson and Wilson, 1992).

The study conducted on forty adolescents affected by "conditions of stigma and poverty", revealed that although they have high aspirations for high school up to graduation and college, they reported lower expectations as well as lacking specific or plausible post school plans (Brantlinger, 1992). A

similar lack of realism was also reported by Cress (1992). Low-income minority students ("at-risk") were found to have high college aspirations but the steps they actually planned to make higher education a reality were very poor, i.e. wide gap existed between college aspirations and preparations.

A number of explanations can be provided for the lowered aspiration level and lack of realism of the disadvantaged adolescents. The social-psychological perspective is a prominent one.

Hotchkiss and Borrow (1996) and Gottfredson (1986) advocate the sociological perspective (i.e. status attainment theory) that argues aspirations as reflecting the effects of bias and discrimination, social attitudes, cultural expectations and stereotypes based on social class, race and gender. These systemic (institutional) biases and structural barriers based on race, gender, and social class can lead to limited career alternatives and availability, imposing lower status and devalued role on adolescents. Such circumstances in turn may result in lowered aspiration levels and very poor achievements.

Hauser and Anderson (1991) have also postulated that socio-econimic status and ability affect educational and career aspirations by way of their realization in school performance and

in social support from significant others. Much of the influence of these background factors on college achievement or occupational success is said to be mediated by aspirations.

Blau (1956) had already elaborated such influences on aspirations in her social psychological schema. She emphasized on the social and structural properties of society that have a powerful influence on the allocation of jobs, and therefore aspirations. Occupational choices are said to be constrained with in the larger system of relations (e.g. the social stratification system) that is outside the individual's control and of which he or she may be only partially aware. In this approach, key opportunity structural components such as industrial growth rates, economic conditions, employment policies, the historical milieu, demographic conditions, and high school tracking as well as psychological attributes such as interests, attitudes, aptitudes and personality types are included. Owens (1992) summarizes Blau's social psychological schema by describing occupational choices (and in fact aspirations) "as a function of individual characteristics being modelled, shaped and 'marketed' within the larger social structure and historical milieu".

Sewel, Haller and Ports (1969), suggested that family's socio-economic effect on later educational and occupational

achievement, is attributed to the intervening influences of various social psychological factors such as school performance and status aspirations. Status aspiration was thought to be important because of its proximity to early status attainment.

Several other explanations are also given by many researchers regarding the lowered aspiration levels and greater goal discrepancy scores of the economically and socially disadvantaged individuals. The real life experiences of success and failure (Haq, 1969), cognitive deficits, fear of failure and low need for achievement (Moulton, 1965), lack of success and opportunities (Ali and Khan, 1982), low self-esteem and norms of the group to which the subject belongs (Lewin, et al, 1944; Hilgard et al, 1940).

Commenting on the plight of poor children, Cook, et al (1996) argued that inner-city children see many more unemployed men around them holding low status jobs. They thus, will likely come to realise that their own job choices are constrained owing to past school performance, their family background, and prejudice of potential employees. Few role models and mentors, poor school grades, unsafe neighbourhoods, etc., are said to engulf the disadvantaged urban youth. This might lead them to have limited experience and unrealistic aspirations.

McDonald and Jessel's (1992) comments is worth coting. "The pervasive socialisation process goes further than simply attenuating children to available opportunities in their environment; it enriches or impoverishes their self-concept, which in turn determines their social behaviour and expectations". This influence of the environment has led Brantlinger (1992) to conclude that "low-income teenagers expect and tolerate second class status. School is a place where they learn their role of surplus population".

Despite the aforementioned research findings and arguments, researchers are not in agreement on the relation between socio-economic status and level of aspiration.

Pal and Tiwari (1984) studied the influence of sex, scholastic achievement and socio-economic status on the self concept and level of aspiration of secondary school students. A sample of 250 students were selected from Agra City and were administered Rostagi's Self Concept Scale, Singh and Tiwari's level of aspiration scale and Singh and Saxena's socio-economic status scale. A randomized factoral block design of 2(achievement) X 2(sex) X 3(SES) was used in the study and 'F-test' and 't-test' were used in the analysis. Findings indicated that self concept was affected only by scholastic achievement. On the other hand,

all the three independent variables significantly affected level of aspiration. The main effect of socio-economic status on level of aspiration was statistically significant ($F = 33.69$, $p<.01$). However, the direction was opposite to that of expectation. The score for low socio-economic groups (mean = 57.8) was greater than the other two strata, i.e. middle and high socio-economic statuses (mean = 50.9 and 44.5 respectively).

Hussain (1979) investigated individual differences among adolescent boys in anxiety and level of aspiration. 58 undergraduate AMU students were sampled. Independent variables were religion, home, locality, income and age. Level of aspiration was measured by the goal-discrepancy scores derived from the L.A. Coding Test. Three family income groups were formed; lower, middle and upper. Separate t-tests were employed for all independent factors. The results showed that the three income groups did not differ significantly in their level of aspiration.

Nonsignificant differences are also reported by investigators on specific level of aspirations. Jackson (1986) reported that only 3% of the variance in post-secondary participation was explained by socio-economic status. Young (1981, in Hossler & Stage, 1992) found out that when parents' educational level and parental encouragement were controlled, income did not significantly add to the amount of explained variance.

Social background as measured by the composite scale scores of the parent with the highest educational and occupational attainment was not significantly related to urban XIIth graders occupational and educational expectations (Walker and Sutherland, 1993).

The path model of Hossler and Stage (1992) indicated that though parental educational level had significant effect, family income did not show significant causal relationship to other variables in the model including educational aspirations. Similarly, Chung, Loeb and Gonzo's (1996) study reported that family income, parents' education level and mother's occupational status did not significantly predict students' occupational and educational aspirations.

In a study conducted by Phipps (1995) to investigate the career dreams of pre-adolescent students, children belonging to different social and economic backgrounds were reported to have similar career dreams.

The study by Farmer and Chung (1995) that was conducted to replicate Farmer's (1985) model of career motivation, arrived at the conclusion that family socio-economic status as measured by fathers' education predicted the sample college students' occupational aspirations. However, it was low socio-economic

background that predicted students' career aspirations. That is, those students from less privileged backgrounds were aiming for higher level careers. In the previous study the opposite trend was observed. Puzzled by these contradictory findings, the authors suggested further investigations on the issue.

Some of the explanations for the conflicting results is suggested by Hossler and Stage (1992) as that some researchers might include additional variables that are correlated with both social economic status and aspirational levels, not to mention differences in research design.

Ethnicity, Race, Caste and Religion:

It appears from the research literaterature that the status of minority groups, especially Blacks in US is inferior in all walks of life when compared with the White majority. The review of Chung, Loeb, and Gonzo (1996) shows that Black Americans lag behind Whites in their educational and vocational attainments. They are more likely to be unemployed, underemployed, and most of them are confined to lower status occupations. According to Hauser and Anderson (1991), despite some growth up to 70's, form mid 70's to 80's, college entry among Black Americans declined, even at the face of rapid growth rate among the White population. This rapid decline trend is reported to affect Blacks across socio-economic status and gender. Solorzano (1992)

summarized the situation by saying that "at any given point in the educational and occupational pipeline, using most measures of educational and occupational outcomes, Blacks do not fare as well as Whites". Perhaps one may also expect that level of aspiration will not be an exception.

What may be one of the most comprehensive study on the problem at hand was that carried out by Josephine (1970). Using a factorial design, the effects of socio-economic status, grade, sex and race were studied by means of ring tossing and spelling tasks of level of aspiration. Goal-discrepancy and absolute level of aspiration were considered as the indices of level of aspiration. Analysis of variance revealed significant effects in isolation and interaction of all the factors studied. While Black children did not differ from White children in their absolute level of aspiration, they were found to differ in their goal-discrepancy, revealing lower degree of realism in level of aspiration than the White children.

In the study conducted by Soares and Soares (1971) in real school life situations, race and socio-economic status were the criteria for drawing disadvantaged and advantaged subjects. The discrepancy between grade expected and achieved was the measure of level of aspiration. The disadvantaged Black children were found to show significantly larger goal-discrepancy than the advantaged White children.

The results showed that Black children were unrealistic and too ambitious in level of aspiration when compared with White children.

In a study that used Harijans and high caste groups of college students as subjects, Srivastava and Agarwal (1978) found that the Harijans set their aspirations unrealistically high than their high caste counterparts while the high caste group kept their level of aspirations more realistically some what above the level of past performance.

In Hussain's (1979) study, the comparison of Muslims and Hindus in terms goal-discrepancy scores revealed that Muslims were less realistic then their Hindu counterparts in their level of aspiration. Hussain (1996) explored the aspirations of Hindu and Muslim Rajputs. His findings revealed significant variations between the two groups on their aspiration levels.

Mau (1995) and Phipps (1995) have found minority nationals to report lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations. Even gifted minority adolescents were observed to have lower levels of aspirations than the gifted from majority groups (McIntosh and Greenlaw, 1990). The study of McCraken, Barcinas and Wims (1991) that showed students aspiration in the academic curriculum were higher than those in the vocational tracks, also reported that Blacks were under represented in the academic track, but aspired to higher unrealistic occupations. That is, they appeared to be naive concerning the employment market.

In their study that attempted to reformulate a model of attitude formation that predicts disadvantaged Black youth's development of educational and occupational aspirations, Walker and Sutherland (1993) took 175 inner-city Black twelfth graders and administered scales. Results showed that the variable "Perception of Opportunity Structure" was a significant predictor of educational and occupational aspirations of Black male subjects. Stronger perception of barriers was found to be related to lowered levels of aspirations.

Cress (1992) argued that jobs could offer disadvantaged adolescents to work with adults and learn from role models there by increasing their career motivation and aspiration. In her interview with low-income students who have part-time jobs, to assess what they think about work, she found out that relationships with adults mattered a great deal to the students. But race also mattered - "White students were more likely than non-Whites to talk about positive experience with adults on the job". The implication of this finding is that non-White adolescents developed lower value for work and thus resulted in the form of lowered occupational aspirations.

A variety of explanations are suggested for the observed differences in the levels of aspiration among the disadvantaged minority and the advantaged majority groups. Lower self-esteem, decreased sense of self value in the family for adolescents, low academic pride, less

adult support to affect self-esteem among minority adolescents (American Association of University Women, 1992); lower income (Voelkel, 1993); cultural mistrust (Terrel, et al. 1993); level of acculturation (Ramos and Sanchez, 1995); and other explanations are given by the investigators.

Walker and Sutherland (1993), after reviewing several studies, have concluded that high school-dropout rates, high levels of urban youth unemployment and severe dislocation of its economy "have conspired to undermine the upper mobility of economically disadvantaged urban youth".

The social-psychological model as described earlier is attributed to work for racial differences in aspirations. Porter (1974) contends that the Black-White mobility distinction as "sponsored" and "contested" mobility differences. Porter's assertion, is based on the findings that Blacks' academic performance and social origins influence on subsequent achievement was minimal contrary to Whites. He concluded that Blacks' mobility was sponsored. "In other words, Blacks who attained positions within the hierarchy were selected by the majority group members rather than by their competitive performances or the socializing influence of significant others".

The perception of the opportunity structure may be singled out to explain the lowered aspirations of Blacks. Due to the erosion of the

economic base, the poverty rate increased among urban Black youth. This might have left the poor with bleak future and also influenced their perception. "Conceptually", said Walker and Sutherland (1993), "the opportunity structure may be defined as those structurally created conditions external to the individual that permit or retard mobility". The authors have cited a number of studies that showed economically disadvantaged Black youth's awareness of structural limitations influencing the types of educational and occupational goals that they developed. For example, Cosby (1974), reported that over a two-year period, Black students, more than any other group, lowered their educational plans because of perceived limitations.

The "cultural deficit" (or "culture poverty") model provides another explanation for the racial differences with regard to status attainment. The model suggests that Black cultural values, that are transmitted through families, are dysfunctional, leading to their low educational and occupational attainment. Solorzono's (1992) explanation of the model postulates that the value Blacks place on education as a vehicle of upward mobility is low. The lowered emphasis and values (i.e. level of aspiration) in education explains why they do not do well in schools. That is why, according to the author, social scientists who use the cultural deficit model focus on race/ethnicity as one predictor of aspiration.

Another explanation of the cultural deficit model propounded by Ogbu (1988), states how "involuntary" racial minorities reinforce their own inequality through a cultural value that ensures failure. John Ogbu's framework as pharaphrased by Slorzano (1992) and Johnson (1992) is said to begin with two generally accepted premises: 1) For beliefs values and attitudes to be imparted, children must have them confirmed by the experiences of older people around them; and 2) positive perceptions and experiences among members of population result in instrumental school behaviour becoming culturally sanctioned.

According to Ogbu, a group is called minority if it occupies the subordinate position in relation to another group in the same society, not in terms of numbers. Ogbu identifies three types of minorities- autonomous, immigrant, and caste like. African Americans are classified under caste like minorities. Caste like minorities are incorporated involuntary and permanently into the host society. Their economic and political roles are defined and limited by the majority. Thus, individual training, abilities and aspirations become meaningless.

The American system of structural inequality, Ogbu maintains, affects motivation, school experience and school performance. Thus, African Americans school performance and motivation have been attenuated by the educational and occupational realities which they have to cope. Their perception of the job ceiling adversely affects their

schooling by lowering aspirations, motivation and achievement; and when combined with the quality of schooling, the caste like role of Blacks is maintained and complete. Thus, Ogbu views the lower aspiration, motivation, and achievement of Blacks as a collective adaptive response.

The cultural deficit model is criticised for giving more emphasis on individual and group characteristics and neglecting institutional or social structural factors, thus shifting the reasons of educational and occupational attainment away from the school (as ability grouping, tracking, teacher-student interactions etc.) and into family and student background characteristics (Solorzano, 1992).

The lowered level of aspirations of minority students, may also be explained in the light of Bandura's Social learning theory (King and Multon, 1996). The theory maintains that interests and behaviour develop from learning experiences which produce positively and negatively reinforcing events. Learning experience may be direct or vicarious. Educational and occupational preferences may develop from observing a model positively reinforced in an activity. Baudura's (1977) social learning theory provides a theoretical base on the effects of vicarious role models (e.g. Television), through the prediction that children of all races have potential for learning values, attitudes and behaviour portrayed on television. African American children and adolescents are reported to identify more with and assign positive

attitudes to Black characters by viewing them as "referent significant others" over White characters. On the other hand, content analyses revealed that TV portrayals of Black Americans to be stereotypical. This line of reasoning led King and Multon (1996) to the assertion that "African American youth may not aspire to professional careers because of constant exposure to limited occupational portrayals of African Americans on TV".

On the other hand there are a number of studies conducted by the investigators that revealed the aspirations of minorities either to be similar to or even greater than those of the majority groups.

In one of the earliest studies, Adams (1939) took three groups of Black and three groups of White subjects (N = 30, each group) from fourth, eighth and college levels. The groups were matched individually for age, sex, intelligence and socio-economic status of their parents. They were given the darts throwing test of level of aspiration. Each subject was given 16 trials, 5 throws in each trial. Shifts in the goal was the measure of realism in level of aspiration. Results showed that while 70 percent of positive or upward shifts and 57 percent of negative or downward shifts in the Black fourth grade children were of usual nature, the corresponding values for White children were 70 percent and 63 percent, indicating no difference between the two groups. Similar results were found in the case of eighth graders and the college students.

Milgram, et al. (1970) too did not find significant difference in the goal-discrepancy on a test of level of aspiration between six year old Black and White children. But in terms of the frequency of erratic shifts, Black children were found to be higher than their White counterparts. Similar results were reported by Strickland (1971) on the study conducted using ninth grade low socio-economic status Black adolescents and middle and high status White counterparts. Here too, though Black subjects made significantly more erratic shifts, other differences were not significant.

The comparisons made by Khan (1986) among Hindu and Muslim children in terms of three measures of level of aspiration - I-bids, goal-discrepancy and shifts - revealed that except for few significant interactions, Hindu and Muslim children did not differ in the main effects of all the three dependent variables. This finding was, the researcher said, contrary to expectation of minority group behaviour and some previous findings.

Concerning specific levels of aspiration, similar findings are found by researchers. As a group, Asian Americans have excelled others in level of aspiration (Kim and Valadez, 1995).

The longitudinal study of Rojewiski and Yang (1997) that included 18,311 students' national data and taken three times (8th, 10th, 12th grades), showed that race/ethnicity had a small direct influence on

eighth graders' occupational aspirations, but the effect gradually decreased at grades 10 and 12. The author concluded by saying race/ ethnicity effects were negligible.

Karraker (1992) compared the educational plans of Black and White female adolescents. A large sub-sample was drawn from a national sample and a questionnaire calling for race, income, etc., and educational plan was administered. Results showed that when family income was controlled, Black females reported similar, and in some cases higher educational plans than their White female counterparts. In a similar manner, the career dreams of eight to eleven year olds was not explained by race. This means, race differences was not observed in the type of work aspired (Phipps, 1995).

Hauser and Anderson (1991) analysed a national survey data that measured post-high school plans and aspirations of high school seniors using the same questionnaire each year - from 1976 to 1986 - 15,000 to 19,000 students per year. Using trends analysis, their finding indicated that no trends in plans or aspirations to complete college programmes was observed for Blacks and Whites. In addition, aspiration for completing college grew in both groups over the years. Thus, the authors concluded that the observed decline in Black's college entry rates was not explained by changes in aspirations.

The path analytic study of Hosler and Stage (1992) regarding

students college aspiration reported that there were no differences in actual levels of student aspirations when comparing minority and majority students. However, ethnicity showed a strong indirect effect on aspirations mediated by high school activities and GPA. Minority students who were more involved in school activities and reported higher GPA's, resulted in higher levels of educational aspiration.

Wilson and Wilson (1992) have also found Black adolescents to report significantly higher level of educational aspiration than Whites. In the exploratory analysis that tested the effects of race, class, and gender on student aspirations, Solorzano's (1992) results revealed that when socio-economic status was controlled, Black students had higher educational and occupational aspirations than Whites.

Evans and Herr (1994) determined the extent to which racial identity (as part of self concept) and perception of discrimination influenced the career aspiration of 60 male and 60 female African American college students. Subjects filled a demographic questionnaire, a racial identity attitude scale and a discrimination against Blacks scale. Racial identity attitudes were not significantly related to traditional career aspirations of either males or females. Neither perception of discrimination against Blacks/and women were significantly related to the career aspiration of the subjects.

Kumar (1976) has also found out that most of scheduled caste

students are drifting from their traditional occupations. Educated scheduled caste students are found following new occupations aspiring for government positions.

Some explanations are provided for these lack of differences in aspirations by race/ethnicity. Parental expectations, self-concept and vision were found to affect higher educational aspirations regardless of racial background (Kim and Valadez, 1995). The observed increased levels of aspiration among minorities was suggested due to increased number of professional role models over the past 20 years and the realization of education as a key to economic stability of Blacks (Wilson and Wilson, 1992). Similarly, Karraker (1992) cited several sources that contended Black Americans to be subject to the same social expectations as other Americans.

Immigrants from China, Japan, South Asia and Indo-China are repeatedly reported to show very high levels of aspirations and the corresponding school success in US. Duncan and Weffer (1992) have reviewed studies that attributed the success of Chinese Americans. Despite their minority status, motivational factors and the work effort derived from Indo-Chinese cultural values, parental expectations, student expectations and valuing the importance of hard work are some of the explanations provided.

Gender:

Himmelweit (1947) studied the level of aspiration of undergraduate students (20 males and 33 females) by administering a test of level of aspiration. The data was analysed in terms of estimates of future performance (goal-discrepancy), estimates of past performance (judgement-discrepancy), flexibility and the percentage of typical reactions to success and failure. Results indicated that though the goal-discrepancy scores of women were significantly smaller than men, in the other measures of level of aspiration, the women subjects either over estimated their subsequent scores or underestimated their past performance. The review of studies by Frank (1941) had also showed some sex differences in level of aspiration, girls having lower aspiration level.

Swaleha (1979) compared the level of aspiration of boys and girls and found out that the two groups differed significantly in their level of aspiration. A strong tendency was found in girls to set their level of goals below their achievement while boys showed the opposite trend.

Pal and Tiwari (1984) also compared secondary school boys and girls and reported significant differences in level of aspiration. The mean scores of males (53.91) promote predominantly aspiration in comparison to the females (mean = 48.29).

First and second grade boys showed a wider range of career choices than the girls (Looft, 1971). 8-11 year old children tended to select occupations which are gender stereotyped (Sellers, Satcher, and Comas, 1999).

Many other studies have also indicated that boys possess higher level of specific aspirations than girls. Despite their belief that society accepts multiple career options for both sexes, boys and girls career aspirations remained fairly sex-stereotyped - boys opting for high earning science/math related jobs (Pettit, et al, 1995). Gifted boys reported higher levels of occupational aspirations than gifted girls (Kelly, 1992). Among A-level students in Britain, despite girls were better qualified than boys, they were relatively lacking in confidence (Stable and Stable, 1995). Learning disabled female students had very low high-prestige aspirations than their learning disabled male counterparts (Rojewiski, 1996). The difference in the level of aspiration was found to increase with age. Girls more than boys, loose their confidence in their abilities and self-esteem as they grow older (American Association of University Women, 1992).

Lapan and Jinglisky (1992) sampled 112 eighth grade students and measured for demography, achievement, sex type and prestige level of occupational map. Results showed that jobs were placed in a two dimensional sex type X prestige level coordinate. Boys and girls

showed similar understanding of a job's sex type and prestige level. In addition subjects made gender congruent choices. Boys expected to attain greater self-efficacy and were interested in occupations that boys and girls agreed were masculine jobs. The same was true for girls on the feminine scale of the map.

Wilson and Wilson (1992) investigated the influence of demographic and environmental variables on adolescents' educational aspirations. Results demonstrated sex to be a significant influencer. It was found the male high school seniors to report higher level of educational aspirations than their female counterparts. Leug, Collie and Sheel (1994) employed retrospective method to measure the career aspiration of 69 boys and 185 girls. The occupations List Instrument was administered to the subjects to obtain career alternatives subjects considered at ages 0-8 years, 9-13 years, and 14+ years. The career alternatives considered in early life period were compared with those considered later. Comparison was also made on the educational and career aspirations of male and female students at each stage. Girls were less likely than boys to aspire to doctoral or professional degrees. The findings suggested the influence of traditional sex role attitudes on career choice.

Muamba (1993) studied 49 boys and 43 girls of Batswana (South Africa). He asked subjects to indicate their career choice and whether

a man, a woman, or a person of either sex best performs each of the 20 jobs. Results showed traditional gender stereotyping for all subjects. The perception that men should have the professional and prestigious jobs was shown by both boys and girls.

Uplaonkar (1983) also reported that the occupational aspirations of women students were lower than those of men students. This indicated that women students in higher education did not perceive any meaningful role in terms of gainful employment. He also suggested that women students were more likely to use higher education as a status symbol, as an end in itself, rather than as a means of gainful employment.

Several explanations are provided for these observed females' lowered level of aspirations and sex-stereotyped educational and career choices. It might be attributed to mother's encouragement and aspirations for daughters' academic level (Hernandez, 1994); the gender bias schools play, lower self-esteem (American association of Univ. Women, 1992); and incongruities between career behaviours and their aspirations.

Similar explanations were provided by Lightbody and Durndell (1996), such as inequalities in the benefits drawn from educational service by males and females; involuntary non-participation in science and technology as a result of inequalities based on group membership

(sex in this case); sex-stereotyping in science and technology; the "hidden curriculum" in schools reinforcing gender stereotyping.

Lapan and Jingelsky (1992) gave their explanations based on self-efficacy theory and sex role orientation of Gottfredson. The self-efficacy is found to be a predictor of gender differences in science and technical vocational interests. Gender differences in efficacy expectations are linked to sex-role orientation. Relationships are found among gender, sex role orientation and mathematics self-efficacy (Hackett, 1985), as well as among gender, sex role identification and career efficacy expectations on college students (Rotberg, et al, 1987).

Gottfredson (1981) stated that career development is a process of narrowing career alternatives according to individual's "zone of acceptable alternatives" that demarcate acceptable/not acceptable occupations based on self-image. People have similar occupational images that deal with the life-style the occupation affords and the type of the person that fits it - not with job duties. This shared image is organized into two major dimensions - the perceived sex type of the job and the perceived prestige level of the job. Based on such premises, she proposed that a zone of acceptable career alternatives can be traced according to three criteria: compatibility of the perceived sex type of each job with sense of gender identity, compatibility of the perceived prestige level of each job with one's self-concept of

acceptable status level, and the willingness to exert effort perceived necessary to obtain each job.

On the other hand, other studies have reported the opposite trend. Himmelstein (1956) studied shifts in level of aspiration in relation to sex. Two types of level of aspiration tasks - stylus maze and digit symbol substitution - were individually administered one after the other to 55 male and 57 female undergraduate White students. Results showed that the male and female students did not significantly differ on both the tasks in items of their shifts.

Shifts and rigidity in level of aspiration of male and female college students were studied by Mohanty (1978) using a randomly selected 144 male and 144 female college students. The two groups were matched for socio-economic status and academic achievement. Results showed that females exhibited more typical responses and were found to be more flexible in adjusting their goals than their male counterparts. Male students were more rigid and non-responsive to success or failure.

Saraswati and Kumna (1979) compared undergraduate male and female students (n = 165) on two constructs - intelligence and level of aspiration. Results revealed that male and female subjects did not differ in terms their general mental ability. But a significant difference was observed in their level of aspiration. Females expected and achieved

much more than the males, showing the females level of aspiration being slightly higher than the male students.

Khan's (1986) comparisons of male and female school children also indicated that, despite few interactions, sex differences were nonsignificant with respect to the main effects on level of aspiration measures.

Rojewiski (1995) conducted a study using rural adolescents and reported that males and females did not differ significantly in their occupational aspirations.

In the examination that assessed the career choice of male and female adolescents, Lightbody and Durndell (1996) administered a career-choice Q-sample to 106 high school students asking them to sort cards first to a hypothetical child (male or female), and then to themselves. The cards contain statements of reasons for selecting a career. Results indicated that the career chosen for the hypothetical pupil was not influenced by its sex or the sex of the respondent. In addition, the career choices for themselves did not coincide with the traditional male-female dichotomy.

Post, Williams and Baubaker (1996) replicated another study conducted ten years earlier to assess gender differences in career aspirations and expectations. They sampled 202 eighth graders and administered a questionnaire. Analysis of the data showed that girls

were found to take more math classes than boys and more girls wanted to go to college than boys.

In a survey of middle schoolers, females have shown higher occupational attitudes than males (McDonald and Jessel, 1992). Male Black freshmen have reported lower educational aspiration than females (Chung, Loeb, and Gonzo, 1996). Both Black and White female eighth grade students showed higher educational aspirations and occupational expectations than their male counterparts (Solorzano, 1992). Female Black urban twelfth graders had significantly higher occupational aspirations than their Black male counterparts (Walker and Sutherland, 1993).

Locality of Residence:

Family residence is yet another background variable that may place individuals at disadvantage. Rural adolescents are said to face many unique situations that can influence their aspirations and career development (Rojewiski, 1995). McCraken, Barcinas and Wims (1991) have reviewed studies that asserted rural and urban schools functioning in quite different environments and that community concerns have greater impact upon rural schools because of their microsomic settings.

The most comprehensive studies that compared the level of aspiration of individuals by their residential areas are those of Sinha's (1969). Developed and undeveloped villages were sampled. As a

measure of level of aspiration, a grain sorting test was administered to 285 farmers from undeveloped villages and 268 farmers from developed villages. The data was analysed in terms of aspiration, goal-discrepancy, judgement-discrepancy, and flexibility scores. Group comparisons led Sinha to conclude that although the undeveloped villages had a tendency to set higher level goals and made fewer shifts in the goal in comparison to the developed villagers, the differences were not marked enough to be significant. However, on absolute aspiration and judgement-discrepancy, the difference between the groups was significant - the developed groups keeping the aspiration higher and the judgement-discrepancy lower than the undeveloped groups. Similar results were also observed with a sample of children drawn from the two groups of villages.

The study by Hussain (1979) had also reached at similar findings in that his undergraduate subjects coming from rural and urban areas did not differ in their level of aspiration.

A number of reviews and research reports have indicated the vocational aspiration of rural adolescents to be lower than their non rural peers (Rojewiski, 1995). Students who lived in urban areas were more likely to attend higher education (Anderson, et al, 1972). Spenser and Featherman (1978) have found that coming from farm depressed achievement ambitions, which may intern lessen the probability of seeking higher education.

Similarly, rural adolescents showed lower level of aspiration and were also found to have experienced conflict between their career aspiration and their future residential preferences than their urban peers (Hektner, 1995).

Some explanations are advocated regarding the circumstances that contribute to the lowered level of aspiration of rural adolescents. Parental low level of education and preference for employment of their children, lack of role models (Hall, et al, 1995); high poverty rates in rural areas, lack of managerial and technical jobs requiring college degree since such jobs have shifted increasingly to urban areas (Haas, 1992).

Environmental Factors:

A number of researchers probed that environmental factors also affect individuals' aspirations such as television (King and Multon, 1996); part-time jobs (Cress, 1992); financial aid (Farmer and Chung, 1995); extra-curricular activities (Hossler and stage, 1992); social activities (Chung, Loeb, and Gonzo, 1996); parental separation like divorce, death and geographical (McDonald and Jessel, 1992; Cook, et al, 1996). But majority of the investigators concentrated on two major environmental factors - the family and the school.

Family environmental variables are conceptualized as parental aspirations for their adolescents, parents' monitoring school work of

adolescents (Wilson and Wilson 1992); mode of parent-child interactions and their cognitive mediators such as parental belief system and their educational and social values (Johnson, 1992).

Family environmental factors are extensively studied and found to influence the aspiration levels of children. Hanson and Ginsburg (1988) have reported that the effect of parental expectations was larger than the effect of SES variables on high school achievement levels and academic growth. As the level of parental expectations increased, student aspirations and achievement also increased (Carpenter and Flieshman, 1987). 37% of the variance in post-secondary aspirations of students was explained by the educational expectations of parents (Sewell and Shah, 1978). Wilson and Wilson (1992) have found that perceived fathers' and mothers' aspirations and parents' influence on high school plans made significant effects on adolescents' educational aspirations.

The sex of the parent is also emphasized by some investigators. Smith (1981) reported that the net effects of mother's aspirations was considerably greater than father's aspirations. The findings of Wilson and Wilson (1992) also asserted that "when maternal aspirations were high, there was an increased likelihood that adolescents aspirations would be high". The greater influence of the mother is explained by their strong attachment with their children (O'Brien and Fassinger, 1990).

Parental influence on adolescents' aspirations is also reported to be a function of the SES of the family. Solorzano (1992) found that parents' expectations rise as their SES rises regardless of their racial membership. Marjoribanks (1992, 1997) have found that parents' support and expectations had differential effects on the educational and occupational aspirations of adolescents of different ability and social status areas.

Young and Friesen (1992) have identified two modalities by which parents can influence their children. Intentional action and non-intentional variables. Intentional action was understood as a voluntary behaviour employed by an agent as a means of attaining certain ends. Non-intentional variables are subjective experiences of a person as an agent of the child's development (e.g. mother's employment).

"The school is another major environment within which the adolescent functions" (Wilson and Wilson, 1992). Marjoribanks (1985) conceptualized the school environment as teachers' support and the regulative, instructional, imaginative, and interpersonal contexts in the school. Wilson and Wilson (1992) used teachers'/counsellors' aspirations for adolescents and their influence on high school programmes and school facilities as variables of school environment. Johnson (1992) have listed school related variables that affect adolescents' self-perception and achievement. The school environmental factors include

quality of interaction with the teachers, instructional programmes and learning activities, curricular materials and extra-curricular programmes, discipline and expectations.

School tracking has been reported to influence the students' aspirations. Students in vocational schools expressed different goals concerning their future (Malmberg, 1996). Klaczynski and Reese (1991) found that vocational school students prepared themselves for adulthood while academic school students prepared themselves for studies and career. Jakson (1986) also found that being in the academic track had positive impact on college aspirations than being in the vocational track.

Teacher expectations and aspirations for their students and the kind of support they provide are grouped as school environmental factors that seem to influence students' aspirations. Plucker (1998) administered aspirations scale to groups of students belonging to schools that differ in their teacher support. Results showed that schools that promote academic achievements also promoted higher aspirations. Besides, the students who received adequate teacher mentoring and who felt that they were valuable members of the school community revealed higher level of aspiration.

The school environmental factors are usually linked with the social and economic status of the students (Brantlinger, 1992; Triplett and Jarjura, 1997).

Hypotheses

Keeping the purpose of the present research ahead and in the light of available literature reviewed, the research hypotheses to be verified are as stated.

1. It was expected that the patterns of goal-setting behaviours of the samples drawn from the two countries representing disadvantaged and advantaged groups of adolescents, should be different. The advantaged and disadvantaged, irrespective of their nationality and social setup, seem to differ in terms of the resources required for excellence in different areas of life such as the home, school environment, opportunity structure, parental and social expectancies. Paucity of resources and encouragement are likely to limit aspirations and achievements of the disadvantaged groups of adolescents. Thus, it was expected that:

1.1 I-bids of the disadvantaged groups would be lower than the advantaged groups.

1.2 The goal-discrepancy scores of the disadvantaged groups would be greater than the advantaged groups.

1.3 a) The scores of usual shifts would be greater for advantaged groups than the disadvantaged groups.

b) Unusual shifts scores would be more observed in disadvantaged groups as compared to advantaged groups.

c) More rigidity (no shifts) would be found in disadvantaged groups than the advantaged groups.

1.4 The occupational aspirations scores of the advantaged groups would be higher than the disadvantaged groups.

1.5 The educational aspiration scores of the advantaged groups would be higher than the disadvantaged groups.

2. It is discussed in the review part that the researchers in the West reported conflicting results concerning the status of boys and girls. The trend however, seems that girls are catching up with boys in terms of aspiration and college enrolment due to the changing value systems and attitudes of the society in general. Even the observed the lack of sex differences is often questioned by many, such as Bem (1993), who cautioned that beliefs about sex and gender and sex-roles are so deeply rooted in society that they are no longer visible. However, in India and Ethiopia, it may be observed that majority of girls are still behind boys in terms of attainment, achievement, post-high school enrollment and the like. Statistics in both countries indicate that women are found in less numbers than men in terms of employment, and also in professional institutions. The role of women as housekeepers is still prevalent. Sex-stereotyping, parental encouragement and expectation, the gender bias schools play, inequalities in the benefits drawn from educational services by

males and females, involuntary non-participation in the field of science and technology are some limiting factors. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that the patterns of goal-setting behaviour of females would be different from the males.

2.1 I-bids of the female groups would be lower than the male groups.

2.2 The goal-discrepancy scores of the female would be higher than the male groups.

2.3a) The score of usual shifts would be higher for males than female groups.

b) The unusual shifts scores of female groups would be higher than male groups.

c) No-shift scores of the female groups would be higher than male groups.

2.4 The occupational aspiration scores of males would be higher than the female groups.

2.5 The educational aspiration scores of males would be higher than the female groups.

3. Minorities are likely to suffer from self-hatred, the feeling of relative deprivation and other marks of oppression. Lower self-esteem, decreased sense of self-value in the family for adolescents, lower parental expectations, lower income, cultural mistrust and others are reported for minorities. Thus, it would

not be unreasonable to assume that minority status is a form of disadvantage, and the goal-setting behaviour of minorities (Muslims in our case) will be different from majority groups (Hindus in India, and Christians in Ethiopia).

3.1 I-bids of the Muslim groups would be lower than the Hindu group (India), Christian group (Ethiopia).

3.2 The goal-discrepancy scores of the Muslim groups would be higher than the Hindu group (India), the Christian group (Ethiopia).

3.3 a) The scores of usual shifts of the Hindu group (India); Christian group (Ethiopia) would be higher than their Muslim counterparts.

b) The usual shifts scores of the Muslim groups would be higher than the Hindu group (India); Christian group (Ethiopia).

c) No-shifts scores of the Muslim groups would be higher than the Hindu group (India); Christian group (Ethiopia).

3.4 The occupational aspiration scores of Hindu group (India): Christian group (Ethiopia) would be higher than their Muslim counterparts.

3.5 The educational aspiration scores of Hindu group (India). Christian group (Ethiopia) would be higher than the Muslim groups.

4. Differences in the goal-setting behaviours of the two countries (India vs. Ethiopia) is not studied till now. Therefore, for this study, it is decided not to formulate hypotheses. Instead, the following leading questions are asked for use as guides in making the comparisons.

4.1 Which country's adolescents would show higher I-bid scores?

4.2 Which country's adolescents would show higher goal-discrepancy scores?

4.3 a) Which one of the two countries adolescents would show higher usual shift scores?

b) Which one of the two countries adolescents would show higher unusual shift scores?

c) Which one of the two countries adolescents would show higher no-shift scores?

4.4 Which one of the two countries adolescents would show higher occupational aspirations level?

4.5 Which one of the two countries adolescents would show higher educational aspiration level?

Chapter-III

METHODOLOGY

METHODOLOGY

Research is a systematic activity directed towards discovery and development of an organized body of knowledge. A scientific research should be conducted in a planned and objective manner. It is essentially required to utilize most suitable sampling technique, work out a neat design, select appropriate standardized tools, and employ the most suitable statistical techniques for data analyses. These vital steps involved in research are helpful in making predictions and drawing conclusions.

According to Sellitz et al (1962), "a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure". Thus, research design can be considered as a blue print for the collection, analysis and interpretation of data (Kothari, 1985).

Taking into consideration the requirements of a scientific research, the present study is in this direction.

Samples:

The nature of the present research is cross-cultural. It involves comparison of groups of adolescents drawn from two different cultures. Thus, it is desirable to make inter- and intra-

group comparisons. The participants were drawn from two cities - Aligarh (India) and Addis Ababa (Ethiopia). These two cities approximate in terms of economic and educational development. For this study, the disadvantaged and advantaged groups of adolescents were selected on the bases of some well defined objective criteria.

The procedures used for the selection of samples incorporate the facts as follows. The method of stratified random sampling was preferred over the method of simple random sampling because, it was considered more suitable for this price of research.

In a developing country, the disadvantaged greatly out number the economically and socially advantaged students. Had the aim of a study was to determine the relationship between categorical and a continuous variable in a defined population, it would have been essential that the categories that comprise the categorical variables be represented in accordance with their proportion in the population, as suggested by Pedhazur (1982). However, Pedhazur further clarified that if the interest of the researcher is in making comparisons among sub-groups (strata), it becomes desirable to have equal number of subjects in the sub-groups. This is accomplished by what is referred to as disproportionate or unequal probabilities sampling. Since the

purpose of the present investigation was to make comparisons between sub-groups too, stratified random sampling suits the purpose.

The number of subjects in each stratum was made equal. This was done because, as suggested by Hays (1994), in multi-factor analysis of variance, if the number of observations in each cell are made equal, the experimental design will be orthogonal and possible consequences of non-homogeneous variance on the probability of type-I error will be minimized. In addition, assumptions usually made in analysis of variance will have minor effect on the results even if they are not fully met.

For drawing up the advantaged and disadvantaged group of adolescents in Addis Ababa, the following procedure was used. The first criterion used to select samples from the schools was based on the type of the school - government/private.

Two senior and junior high schools were selected for the purpose. Government schools are known for providing poor educational experiences. In each school, five sections were randomly chosen.

A demographic questionnaire containing nine items that call for family income, parents' education and occupation, locality, students' sex, age and religion was administered to gather relevant

information. The present researcher, on the advice of social experts decided that a disadvantaged student be defined as a student:

i. Whose family income is below Br. 300 (USD-35),
ii. whose parent's level of education is below grade eight
iii. and whose parent's occupational status level is considered to be less prestigious.

On the basis of set criteria and with the help of class teachers 753 students were considered as disadvantaged. Those students who were irregular, failures in examinations and class repeaters, showing signs of delinquency and aggression were ignored. Of the roughly remaining 690 students, 107 Muslim female, 139 Muslim male, 120 Christian female, and 224 Christian males were found. From each stratum, 32 students were randomly drawn as the final participants of the study. The age range of the students was between 13 and 18, with a mean age of 14.6.

The private schools are widely known for their high amount of fees and quality educational programmes. Though there was little doubt about selecting the advantaged group of students, similar procedure was used like that for drawing disadvantaged from government schools. The advantaged group of students were selected on the basis of the following criteria.

i. Whose family income is above Br.1600 (USD=200),

ii. whose at least one of the parents' educational level is above grade 12,

iii. and whose at least one of the parents' occupational status is considered to be high.

Out of 516 students, those who were found to be irregular, failures or presenting problem of adjustment, as reported by class teachers were excluded. Of the remaining 507 students, 110 Muslim females, 123 Muslim males, 140 Christian females, and 134 Christian male adolescents were found. From each stratum, 32 students were finally randomly selected. The age range of the students was between 12 and 16, with a mean age of 13.8 years.

A researcher can roughly classify the schools located in and around the university campus of Aligarh city in to two types. i) Public/convent schools where the majority of children of the well-to-do families are enrolled, and ii) state government and union schools where majority of boys and girls belonging to low and lower middle income groups get their education. Here too, the method of stratified random sampling was used keeping ahead the intricacy of the research and for the same reasons already discussed earlier.

Two union high schools were selected on purpose. Eight

sections were randomly chosen. After the cooperation of school principals and teachers was secured, it was decided that a disadvantaged student be defined as a student:

i. Whose family monthly income ranges up to Rs. 6000,
ii. whose parents' level of education is low, and
iii. whose parents' occupational status is considered to be less prestigious in the society.

As indicated, almost all the students in these schools satisfy the criteria. Out of a total of 481 students, there were 181 Muslim males, 137 Muslim females, 76 Hindu males and 87 Hindu females. From each stratum, 32 students were randomly drawn as the final sample subjects. The age range of the students was between 13 and 17 with a mean age of 14.4 years.

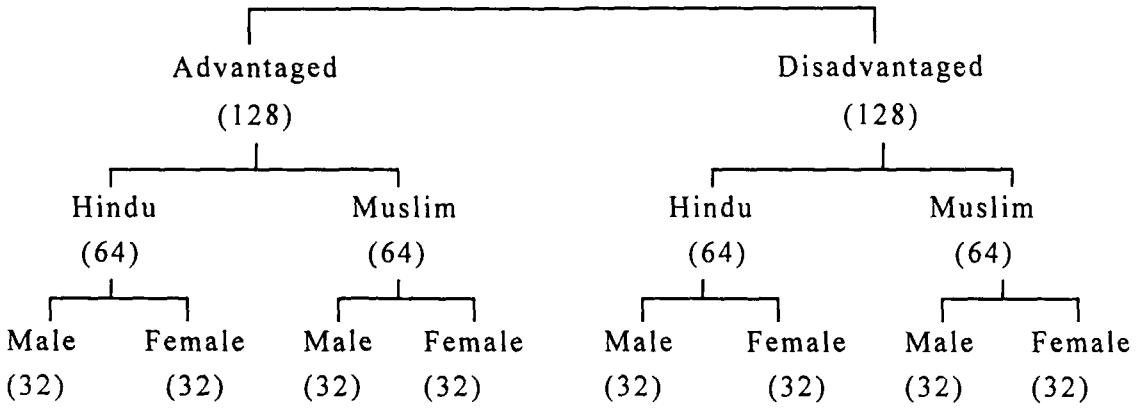
The advantaged group of students were drawn from the school which is well known for its high quality education. Though the advantageous position of the students is obvious, the advantaged student was defined as:

i. Whose family monthly income is above Rs.12,000 (USD=300),
ii. whose at least one of the parents' educational level is high,
iii. and whose at least one of the parents' occupational status is considered to be prestigious.

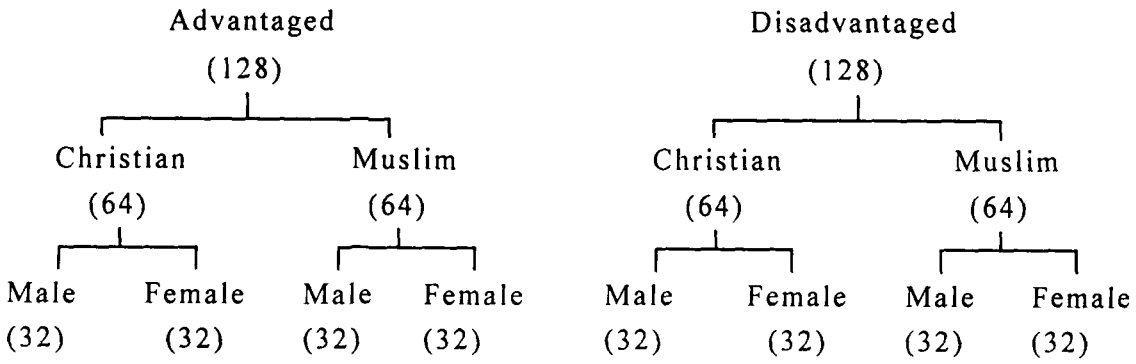
Of the 378 students in the six sections, 102 were Hindu males, 114 Hindu females, 73 Muslim males, and 89 Muslim females. From each stratum, 32 students were randomly selected. The age range of the students was between 12 and 17 with a mean age of 13.9.

The samples break-up are as under.

Aligarh (India)



Addis Ababa (Ethiopia)



Variables:

Independent Variables:

Advantaged/Disadvantaged (social and Economic status):

Two levels: A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = Disadvantaged

Criteria to identify this variable is already operationally defined. As discussed in chapter-II, a person's social and economic status do have implications on his/her general and specific aspiration levels. However, this variable is not studied in the case of Ethiopia, and conflicting results are reported in India. Thus, the inclusion of this variable seems essential.

Sex: Two levels B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

Sex as a major influencing factor of level of aspiration is widely reported. But conclusive results have not been reached. In Ethiopia, effects of sex differences on aspirations are not studied. In India, though quite substantial investigations are reported concerning sex and gender differences on different kinds of aspirations, agreement does not seem to be arrived at yet. Thus, the inclusion of this variable seems necessary in the case of India and definitely very important in the case of Ethiopia, as a beginning research.

Religion: Two levels, C_1= Hindu (India), Christian (Ethiopia); C_2 = Muslim (India and Ethiopia)

As indicated in the review part, minority status could be a result of racial, ethnic, or language affiliation. For this study, religion is chosen because in the cities where the study is conducted (Aligarh and Addis Ababa), religious affiliation is more distinct and visible than race or language.

Racial/ethnic/religious affiliation has often been viewed as a stimulus variable that "triggers" or causes societal reactions such as discrimination and bias, educational and occupational stereotyping, and undue restrictions on educational and occupational opportunities. Regardless of specific racial/ethnic group affiliation, individuals of minority status may, as a group, be more likely to encounter similar socialisation experiences and environmental barriers to educational and career attainment as well as to personal development (Hotchkiss and Borrow, 1996). Thus, religious minority status may influence general and specific levels of aspirations.

While reviewing literature, the present researcher found that in Ethiopia, the influence of religious differences on achievement, attainment, or aspirations is not yet studied. This will be a pioneer research. In India, despite a number of research reports,

conclusive results are still to be investigated. Thus, the inclusion of this variable seems to be important.

In addition, cross-cultural comparisons concerning differences on the level of aspirations of Indian vs. Ethiopian adolescents are included. This study is the first to compare the general and specific levels of aspirations of the two countries' adolescents.

Dependent Variables:

I-Bids/Initial Bids

I-bid is the first level of aspiration score that an individual sets on the task and at this moment he/she is not aware of the possibility of attainment or non-attainment of the goal. In the absence of prior experience, the individual has to decide, without the availability of any frame of reference, what level of the goal he/she should set for achievement. (Minimum score = 1, Maximum score = 75).

Goal-Discrepancy:

This is the chief and most extensively used measure of level of aspiration. It is defined very similarly by researchers. It is "the difference between the average performance and average estimate in a given task" (Gould, 1941). "D-score is defined as the mean of the differences between each estimate and the preceding achievement" (Rotter, 1954). "Goal discrepancy score

(GDS) is the difference between past performance and succeeding estimate" (Rajeswari, 1967). It "refers to the height of the goal set by a person in relation to his past performance" (Ali, 1976).

For this study, goal-discrepancy score is defined as the sum of the differences, in absolute terms, between each estimate and preceding achievement (Minimum score 0, Maximum score = 750).

Researchers in the area agree that while low positive goal-discrepancy score is an index of realistic goal-setting, risk-taking, and adjustment of the individual, very high positive or negative goal-discrepancy scores are indices of unrealistic goal setting which are indicators of failure avoidance, lacking in adjustment and defensiveness.

Shifts:

Rotter (1954) defined frequency of shifts as "the absolute number of times the subject changes his estimate out of" a possible number of trials. Ali (1976) defined a shift as "the raising or lowering of the goal following success or failure". Shifts may be usual (typical response) or unusual (atypical response).

i. Usual shifts (Typical response) is defined as the raising of the level of goal after success (reaching the aspired level) and the lowering of it after failure (not reaching the aspired level).

The usual shifts score is calculated by counting the number of times the goal is raised after success or lowered after failure on the preceding trials (maximum score = 10, minimum score = 0). This being indicative of necessary adjustment to success and failure, it enables us how the individual responds to success or failure.

ii. Unusual Shifts (Atypical) is the lowering of the goal after success or the raising of the aspiration level after failure. The unusual shifts score is calculated by counting the number of times the goal is raised after failure and lowered after success (maximum score = 10 minimum score = 0). Higher scores of unusual shifts indicate lack of adjustment of the goal in face of success and failure indicating irrealism or abnormal behaviour on the part of the individual in adjusting to the height of the aspiration following success and failure. Rotter (1954), for example, has suggested that unusual shifts may occasionally appear in the first few trials "when the subject is still feeling his way". But, continued Rotter, "when there are two such shifts in the subject's response they are usually correlated with some type of emotional instability. When there are more, the chances of instability being present are high".

iii. No shift (rigidity score) is the response where the subject stays on the same level of aspiration irrespective of success or failure. (Maximum score = 10, minimum score = 0).

Occupational aspiration:

Occupational aspiration is defined in this study as the sum of the chosen occupation prestige levels from the eight items each having 10 options from Grewal's Occupational Aspiration Scale. Each occupation has a scale value from 0 to 9 (thus, maximum score = 72, minimum score = 0). The scale was directly used in the case of Indian subjects where as its adapted form was used in the case of Ethiopian subjects. (Explanation is given in the next section). Researchers agree that higher scores indicate higher occupational aspiration level where as lower scores show lowered occupation aspiration level.

Educational Aspiration:

For this study, the level of educational aspiration is defined as the sum of the chosen educational levels from an Educational Aspiration Scale developed for this purpose. The values of the options range from 1 to 6. (Thus, maximum score = 36, minimum score = 8). Higher scores indicate higher educational aspiration level. (The description of the scale is provided in the next section).

Tools:

Demographic Questionnaire:

Students were asked to indicate their sex, religion, and parents' occupations. They were also asked to check their parents' educational levels out of six categories, and their family income out of five categories. In addition, in order to facilitate the analysis and interpretation of results, several other items were included in the questionnaire. Students were asked to check their previous semester marks out of five categories to be used as indicators of their achievement. Students were also asked to indicate their perceptions of their parents' and teachers' occupational and educational aspirations for themselves.

L.A. Coding Test:

The instrument or test for studying level of aspiration is generally designed in terms of the operations specified by Frank (1941), and accepted by Lewin et al (1944), and other subsequent investigators (Cassel, 1950; Rotter, 1954; Ansari and Ansari 1964). In a typical level of aspiration situation, the individual, after being familiarized with the nature of the task, sets up a goal explicitly and works to achieve it. The sequence is repeated a number of times.

The achievement for each trial may be directly known by the subject or may be announced by the experimenter (the true score

or a prearranged score) so that the subject can set his/her next goal for a similar task.

For the present study, the L.A. Coding Test of Ansari and Ansari (1964), which has been used for studying certain dispositional tendencies of normal, neurotics, grown up individuals and also young children by a number of investigators (Ansari and Ansari, 1964; Ansari, 1975; Ansari and Zuberi, 1972; Ali, 1975; 1976; Ali and Khan, 1982), was chosen. This test is also used to compare different groups by demographic characteristics (e.g. Husain, 1979; Khan 1986). The test, besides being easy and absorbing, is simple to administer. Being a paper-and-pencil test, it definitely suits students of both countries as they are accustomed to paper-and-pencil tests. The indices of level of aspiration are specified and quantifiable.

This test is different from other commonly used tests of level of aspiration in the sense that it appears to be some what intellectual in character and hence expected to arouse interest in the students. It is a letter-symbol substitution task comprising eleven parts. Each part is equality alike and occupies one full page. On the top right of each part of the test, there is a key providing codes for English alphabets which is to be used for decoding 75 commonly used arithmetical symbols, arranged in five

rows of fifteen symbols each. The subject is required to write the letters A,B,C,D,E,F or G against the symbols according to the key. The number of items or symbols on each part remains the same, but their arrangement differs randomly from part to part. On the top left of each part, there is a space provided for writing the number of codes the subject expects to complete in one minute and on the left bottom, a space is provided for writing the number of codes the subject actually completes within the specified time. The subject does this activity himself/herself. Instructions regarding the nature of the task with illustrative examples are provided in detail.

The contents of the test, when scrutinized critically, do not show any sign of specific culture loading and this test may be called a culture fair test. Any one, anywhere, who is familiar with the English alphabets and rudimentary arithmetic symbols, can easily be tested with this test. The subjects of this study in both countries, being grade 8 and 9 students, are definitely familiar with the English alphabets and the symbols.

However, the instruction was printed in English, Hindi and Urdu for Indian subjects, and the Amharic translation was attached for Ethiopian subjects. Before the subjects start working on the task, they were allowed to read the instructions carefully.

The Occupational Aspiration Scale:

For the present study, Grewal's Occupational Aspiration Scale (1975) was found most suitable and thus, selected for use. This scale is widely used in India and its validity and reliability were found to be quite substantial (Swaminathan and Parvathi, 1983).

The fundamental reason for the choice of the scale is that the 80 occupations listed in the scale are very similar to the main occupations found in Ethiopia, than the other scales.

The scale is an eight item multiple choice instrument. Each item contains ten occupations as options. The occupations have got different status values. The items permit responses at both the idealistic level (subject given complete freedom to choose), and the realistic level (the subject is sure to get the job). In addition, the items call for two goal periods, short range (at the end of schooling) and long range (at the age of 30 years). The scale is a self-descriptive instrument and can be used in a group of students.

As the test was initially constructed for use on Indian subjects, it was directly administered to them, and scoring was done according to the manual of the scale. However, in order to use the scale in Ethiopian situation, some kind of adaptation was needed for the obvious reason of cultural differences. An explanation of the procedure followed to this end seems in order.

As indicated, in Ethiopia, there are neither standard occupational indices or measures of occupational aspiration. First, the eighty occupations of the scale were presented to some highly experienced experts. They were asked to identify occupations that are not common or that do not exist in Ethiopia. Seven occupations were spotted as needing modifications to Ethiopian situation. In consultation with the experts, parallel occupations were replaced.

Indian	Ethiopian
1.5 Diplomat in the Indian foreign Service	1.5 Diplomat in the Ethiopian foreign service
2.5 State governor	2.5 Regional state president
2.7 Owner-operator of a printing press	2.7 Owner-operator of a duplicating machine
4.8 Lady village level worker	4.8 Village level lady social worker
4.10 Coal miner	4.10 Quarry miner
6.10 Railway signal man	6.10 Highway controller
8.2 Railway guard	8.2 Road transport coordinator

After the content analysis, the occupations were prepared in a questionnaire form. In the questionnaire, the instruction was to rate each occupation in a 5 point scale, 5 = very high prestige level, and 1 = very low prestige level. Prestige scores were chosen to code occupational aspirations for the same reasons to that of Rojewiski and Yangs' (1997). (a) To provide a continuous

variable of aspiration that facilitated data analysis. (b) Because prestige levels influence people's perceptions about the relative worth, power, and status of occupations.

The questionnaire was distributed to 20 college lecturers and 50 college students of Bahir Dar University, Faculty of Education. The responses were collected, and for each occupation, two average scores were calculated - one, the responses of the lecturers and the other, of the students. To see the degree of agreement between the two groups of responses, Person Product Moment correlation was calculated and was found to be $r = .83$, which is statistically significant beyond $p<.01$.

To check if this agreement is consistent with the views of secondary school students, two sections were randomly selected from one high school and the same questionnaire was administered to 112 students. The correlation of the ratings between the college group and the high school group was still very high $r = .79$. Two experts also gave their ratings and the correlation between college lecturers rating was $r = .91$.

In consultation with the experts, it was decided to consider the ratings of the twenty lecturers, as these judges were from various disciplines and of having wide experiences.

The next step was to arrange the occupations in descending order and calculate the deciles. The first decile occupations were given a status value of 0, the second decile was assigned 1, and so on up to the tenth decile with a status value of 9.

Finally, the occupations were placed in their original order, the item stems were the same as the original scale and the instructions were also the same. The reliability of the adapted scale need to be ascertained on a pilot sample, similar to the final sample of this study. 96 grade eight and nine students were selected in the same manner as the final sample was selected but from a different school. The adapted scale was administrated twice i.e., test-retest, with in a span of 20 days. Scoring was done by adding the values of the eight chosen occupations with the new scale values. The correlation of the two total raw scores was $r=.73$ which is statistically significant beyond $p<.01$ level.

The Educational Aspiration Scale:

For the present study, an educational aspiration scale was developed and validated. The reasons to develop this scale are: i) There is no any educational aspiration scale developed for use in Ethiopia. ii) Although standardized scales are available in India, the options do not fit in the Ethiopian situation. Thus, the investigator felt a need to develop a scale that may be

compatible to both nations. In addition, this scale would be an important contribution to the Ethiopian educational research endeavour.

The scale consists of six items. Three of the items were designed to call for educational aspirations at the wish level ("If you were completely free ...") and the other three items call for responses at the 'realistic' level (" ... you are sure to attain). Items 5 and 6 are intended to remind the respondents about their longer term aspirations by hinting them to think forward when they attain 30 years of age.

For each item, six options are provided. The options are educational levels arranged in a continuum of difficulty. They are arranged in the hierarchy of difficulty levels of education from the lowest (grade 10) to the highest degree.

The scale was content validated by the judges of this field. The next step was to validate the scale and to conduct a factor analysis to extract the main constructs and to see if the items are working as intended. The scale was administered to 96 students selected on a stratified random basis. The scores for each individual were calculated by adding the scale values of the selected options. Thurstone's centroid method of factor analysis was used (Comery and Lee, 1992). Two factors were originally extracted. An orthogonal hand rotation was then employed. The

angle of rotation was 22° in a counter-clockwise direction. When determining the appropriate rotation of reference vectors, the effort was to achieve positive manifold and simple structure. The new loadings were calculated by the flowing formula.

$A_1 \text{ Cos } \alpha - A_2 \text{ Sin } \alpha = A^1_1$

$A_1 \text{ sin } \alpha + A_2 \text{ Cos } \alpha = A^1_2$

where A_1 and A_2 are original factor loadings before rotation, α is the angle of rotation and A^1_1 and A^1_2 are the values of the new loadings on the new rotated factors. **Table 1** shows the factor loadings after rotation.

TABLE 1: Factor loadings after rotation

	Factor Loading		
Item	I	II	h^2 (communality)
1	.548	.593	.651
2	.885	-.052	.785
3	.470	.318	.322
4	.837	.036	.702
5	.543	.593	.645
6	.679	-.027	.462
SSQ	2.761	.809	3.55
Variance percent	78	22	

The two factors are interpreted as follows: Items 1, 3 and 5 have substantial loadings on factor II where as the rest of the

items have near zero loadings. These group of items ask students to choose an educational level that they would like to reach without considering the realities of life. Thus, we termed this factor as Educational Aspiration-Idealist Level Factor. On the other hand, items 2, 4 and 6 have very high loadings on factor I. These items ask students to consider the realities of life when selecting an educational level. We termed this factor as the Educational Aspiration-Realistic Level Factor. On this factor, items 1, 3 and 5 do have considerable loadings. The reason seems as described in the review part, students are influenced by their SES, sex, ethnicity, ability, and other factors when choosing an educational level. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that even when students are asked their educational aspiration at the ideal level, these influences may operate at the conscious and/or unconscious levels and their responses reflecting some degree of realism.

The scale was also construct validated using two theories derived from current literature. i) The educational aspiration of disadvantaged adolescents is lower than their advantaged counterparts (e.g. Owens, 1992; Karraker, 1992; Marjoribanks, 1997). To test this theory, the scores of the advantaged and disadvantaged subjects were compared using a t-test, which was found to be $t = 13.65$, $p<0.01$. The result indicated that

advantaged students have higher educational aspirations than the disadvantaged groups. ii) The discrepancy between idealistic and realistic educational aspiration scores of disadvantaged students is wider than the advantaged groups. Perception of the opportunity structure, family, neighbourhood, type of school environment, parental and societal expectations are likely to impel the disadvantaged that they would end up at lower levels. But this may not be the case for advantaged students (See for e.g. Walker and Sutherland, 1993).

To test this theory, for each respondent the realistic aspiration scores were substructed from the idealistic educational aspirations scores, the difference being his/her discrepancy score. The t-test was employed on the obtained discrepancy scores of the two groups. The result showed that the discrepancy scores of the disadvantaged group was significantly higher than their advantaged counterparts ($t = 2.25$, $p<.05$, one tailed). Thus, the two theories, at least temporarily, go in line with the results, indicating the scale to have some construct validity.

After being satisfied with the validity of the scale, it was administered to 60 students on a test-retest basis, with in a span of four weeks. The reliability of this scale was found to be $r = .73$.

Tools Administration Procedure:

A small group of students were called in to a room in the vicinity of the school and utmost care was taken with the cooperation of the principal and the teachers. To establish rapport and good relations and to remove any doubt, the experimenter received them cordially and spoke a few customary words. They were also invited to sit comfortably on chairs. To arouse interest in the students, a simple lecture was given concerning the nature of the tasks.

First, the booklet containing the Occupational Aspiration Scale and the Educational Aspiration Scale was placed in front of the sampled students and were requested to fill out the scale. The two scales were presented before the L.A. Coding Test because, this test produces success and failure experiences and thus some emotional outcomes. Emotions in turn might have affected the responses to the scales had the test been administered first. Administration of the two scales normally took up to fifteen minutes.

Next, the L.A. Coding Test booklet was placed in front of each respondent. In the first page there was a questionnaire as described earlier. They were asked to furnish the required information such as name, sex, grade, religion, family income, parental education and occupation, etc. This usually didn't take more than 10 minutes.

Then after, the experimenter read out the standardized instructions slowly - first in English and next in the translations and then requested the students to read the same from the booklet. To further make the instructions comprehended by every testee, each and every point was described in Hindustani/Amharic by the experimenters. Questions about any difficulty raised by any student were readily explained. Finally, the subjects were again briefly told what they were going to do, and were asked to work-out the example in the booklet. The experimenter checked out that every student had worked out the example correctly. Subjects were then told to turn to part one of the booklet and to write the number of codes they expect to decode in one minute on the space provided. Then they started working on the test being asked to start and stop immediately when the experimenter told that one minute is over. The time is controlled with the help of a stop watch. Subjects were requested to write the number of codes they actually completed in the bottom space of the same page. Exactly the same procedures were followed for the remaining ten parts of the test. Administration of the L.A. Coding Test on a group normally took 25-30 minutes.

Data Analysis:

In any research endeavour, selecting appropriate statistical technique for data analysis is undoubtedly a difficult task. The investigator has to consider a set of criteria such as the existence of an external criterion, the scales of variables, and the number of the variables involved in a set (Takeuchi, Yanai, and Mukherjee, 1982). Thus, taking into consideration the nature of variables and objectives of the present study, parametric tests were preferred over the non-parametric ones.

Since the criterion variables of the present study are continuous (interval scale) and the three independent variables are categorical, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), which is a special case of multiple regression analysis (Pedhazur, 1982), was found to serve the purpose of the investigation. In addition, for comparing the two cultures, the investigator found the t-test as most suitable.

ANOVA and t-test are often referred to as robust in that the results of the analyses are little affected by the violation of one or more of the assumptions made for conducting the tests (Hays, 1994).

Chapter-IV

RESULTS
&
DISCUSSION

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, analysis of the data and interpretation of the results obtained are presented. The collected data is processed and analysed in accordance with the purpose of the study. For a scientific study there is a need to process all the relevant information available for making contemplated group comparisons, and this was done accordingly.

After the analyses, the task of drawing inferences was conducted with utmost care. It is only through interpretation that a researcher can probe relations that underlie the findings. In this chapter, the discussion part deals with interpretation of the results.

The abbreviations used to refer various comparison groups in the analyses of the data are being presented for ease of reference.

A = Socio-economic Status

A_1 = Advantaged

A_2 = Disadvantaged

B = Sex

B_1 = Male

B_2 = Female

C = Religion

C_1 = Hindu (India), Christian (Ethiopia).

C_2 = Muslim (India and Ethiopia)

Table 2 : Educational Level of Parents (in percentages)

	India				Ethiopia			
	Father		Mother		Fathers		Mothers	
Educational Level	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2
Masters and Above	59	0	28	0	13	0	2	0
Bachelor's Degree	23	39	32	13	16	0	11	0
High School & College	18	27	35	25	71	15	49	12
Below High School	0	34	5	62	0	85	38	88

A_1 = Advantaged A_2 = Disadvantaged.

Table 2 shows that, in both the countries, fathers appear to be more educated than the mothers. Parents of the advantaged groups are highly educated when compared with the parents of the disadvantaged groups. It is also apparent that parents of the Indian samples are more educated in comparison to the Ethiopian parents.

Table 3 : Semester School Achievement of the Samples (in percentages)

	India				Ethiopia			
	A1		A2		A1		A2	
Marks	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2
75 % and above	51	67	2	19	47	36	18	9
61 % - 74 %	37	33	17	44	39	34	20	18
Below 60 %	12	0	81	37	14	30	62	73

A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = Disadvantaged, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

Table 3 indicates that the advantaged group of adolescents in both countries scored higher marks than their disadvantaged counterparts. In the Indian sample, girls seem to have slightly higher marks than boys where as in Ethiopia, the opposite trend is indicated.

Table 4: Adolescents Perception regarding the Occupational Aspiration of their Parents and Teachers for them. (in percentage)

	Occupational Prestige Level	Ethiopia				India			
		A_1		A_2		A_1		A_2	
		B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2
Mothers' Aspiration	High	100	94	50	33	85	97	90	71
	Medium	0	6	50	77	15	3	10	29
Fathers' Aspiration	High	100	100	66	37	97	100	63	54
	Medium	0	0	44	63	3	0	37	46
Teachers'	"Don't Know"	22	19	64	67	16	4	10	7

A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = Disadvantaged, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

It can be observed from **Table 4** that the Ethiopian and Indian advantaged groups of sample adolescents seem to perceive their parents as having occupational aspirations of high prestige value than the disadvantaged groups. The disadvantaged male groups are expected to occupy occupations of higher prestige when compared with their disadvantaged female counterparts.

Table 5: Adolescents Perception Regarding the Educational Aspiration of their of Parents and Teachers' for Them (in percentages)

	Educational Level	Ethiopia				India			
		A_1		A_2		A_1		A_2	
		B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2	B_1	B_2
Mothers'	High	95	82	44	21	84	92	52	42
Aspiration	Medium & Low	5	18	56	79	16	8	48	58
Fathers'	High	100	91	73	24	94	98	58	55
Aspiration	Medium & Low	0	9	27	76	6	2	42	45
Teachers'	"Don't Know"	15	11	65	57	18	19	12	14

A_1 = Advantage, A_2 = Disadvantage, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

Table 5 seems to indicate that the advantaged groups drawn from both countries perceived their parents' educational aspirations for them much higher in comparison to their disadvantaged counterparts. Ethiopian adolescent boys reported higher parental aspirations than their female peers. This trend is not observed in the Indian sample. Teachers' aspirations are least known by the Ethiopian disadvantaged group.

Table 6: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: I-Bids, Ethiopia

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	1139	1	1139	8.6	< .01
B	618.7	1	618.7	4.7	< .05
C	1.9	1	1.9	-	
AxB	6.3	1	6.3	-	
AxC	27.6	1	27.6	.2	
BxC	107.7	1	107.7	.8	
AxBxC	280.5	1	280.5	2.1	
Within	32793	248	132.2		
Total	3497 4	225			

A = SES, B = Sex, C = Religion

Table 6 indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 8.6, $p<.01$} between Ethiopian advantaged and disadvantaged group of adolescents in their level of initial aspiration (I-bid). Advantaged subjects showed higher (mean = 42.0) I-bids than their disadvantaged counterparts (mean = 37.8).

The same table indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 4.7, $p<.05$) between the male and female groups, boys having higher (mean = 41.5) I-bid scores than the girls (mean = 38.4).

All together, the systematic features of the variables accounted for about 6% of the total variability in I-bid scores observed in this sample.

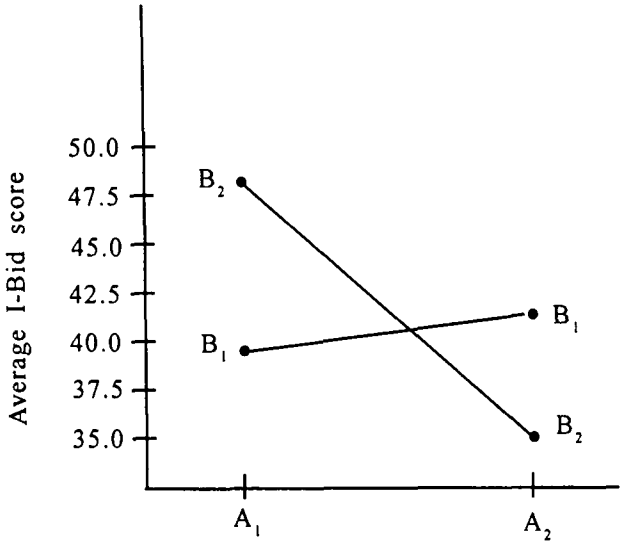
Table 7: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: I-bids, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	2041.9	1	2041.9	17.2	<.01
B	71.2	1	71.2	.6	
C	2.0	1	2.0	-	
AxB	3171.1	1	3171.1	26.7	<.01
AxC	148.6	1	148.6	1.2	
BxC	4.3	1	4.3	-	
AxBxC	119.6	1	119.6	1.0	
Error	29498.8	248	118.9		
Total	35057.5	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 7 shows that there is a significant difference {F(1.248) = 17.2, p<.01} between Indian advantaged and disadvantaged subjects in terms of I-bid scores. The I-bids of advantaged group (mean = 44.2) was higher than the disadvantaged group (mean = 38.6). This main effect seems to be a result of the significant interaction effect by SES and sex {F(1,248) = 26.7, p<.01}. Where as the advantaged girls have the highest I-bid scores (mean = 48.3), the disadvantaged girls have the least initial bids (mean = 35.6). This interaction is presented in Fig 1. The variables under study account for about 16% of the total variability in I-bid scores observed in the Indian sample.

Figure 1: Interaction of SES and Sex on I-bids. India.



A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = disadvantaged, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

Table 8: Comparison of Indian and Ethiopian Sample groups I-Bid Scores.

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India-Total	256	41.45	11.70	0.93	1.63	
Ethiopia-Total	256	39.93	11.69			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	40.23	9.81	1.81	1.77	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	43.44	10.60			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	48.33	12.22	2.18	3.53	<. 01
Eth-A_1B_2	64	40.64	12.50			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	41.62	11.45	2.06	1.01	
Eth-A_2B_1	64	39.53	11.81			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	35.64	9.41	3.11	.15	
Eth-A_2B_2	64	36.11	10.52			

A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = Disadvantaged, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

Table 8 Indicates that there is a significant difference (t = 3.53, p<.01) between Indian and Ethiopian advantaged girls. The Indian advantaged girls had higher I-bids (mean = 48.33) than the Ethiopian advantaged Female group (mean = 40.64). All other comparisons of the total groups and subgroups between the two countries are found insignificant.

Table 9: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Goal-Discrepancy, Ethiopia.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	28878.7	1	28878.7	42.3	<.01
B	6350.1	1	6350.1	9.3	<.01
C	844.6	1	844.6	1.2	
AxB	837.4	1	837.4	1.7	
AxC	509.1	1	509.1	.7	
BxC	739.1	1	739.1	1.1	
AxBxC	173.9	1	173.9	.3	
Within	169291.4	248	682.6		
TOTAL	207624.4	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 9 indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 42.3, p<.01}, between the Ethiopian advantaged and disadvantaged groups in their goal-discrepancy scores. The advantaged group of subjects' goal-discrepancy scores (mean = 55.1) is lower than the disadvantaged group (mean = 76.4). This factor accounted for about 14% of the variation in the goal-discrepancy scores.

Table 9 also indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 9.3, p<.01} between the male and female groups, boys having lower goal-discrepancy scores (mean = 60.8) than the girls (mean = 70.7). All other comparison groups did not differ significantly. All together, the variables under study accounted for about 18% of the total variation in goal-discrepancy scores found in the Ethiopian sample.

Table 10: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Goal-Discrepancy, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	32220.2	1	32220.2	57.6	<.01
B	1369.0	1	1369.0	2.45	
C	1936.0	1	1936.0	3.46	
AxB	25.0	1	25.0	.04	
AxC	3.1	1	3.1	-	
BxC	9.0	1	9.0	-	
AxBxC	42.2	1	42.2	.08	
Error	138640.4	248	559		
TOTAL	174244.9	255			

A=SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 10 shows that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 57.6, p<.01} between the Indian advantaged and disadvantaged groups of adolescents. Advantaged subjects' goal-discrepancy score (mean = 52.2) was lower than their disadvantaged counterparts (mean = 74.6). This factor accounted for 18% of the variation in the goal-discrepancy scores of this group.

Table 11: Showing the goal-discrepancy comparisons of the Sample groups in India and Ethiopia

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	63.39	26.09	2.41	.97	
Ethiopia	256	65.73	28.48			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	54.17	25.52	3.92	.56	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	51.94	18.27			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	50.17	18.51	3.92	2.07	
Eth-A_1B_2	64	58.28	25.33			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	77.23	25.40	4.34	1.76	
Eth-A_2B_1	64	69.56	23.61			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	71.98	23.63	5.16	2.16	
Eth-A_2B_2	64	83.14	33.88			

A_1 = Advantaged, A_2 = Disadvantaged, B_1 = Male, B_2 = Female

The comparison of the sampled adolescents of the two countries as shown in **Table 11** indicates that the Ethiopian group of adolescents showed higher goal-discrepancy than the Indian groups, though the differences are not statistically significant.

Table 12: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Usual Shifts, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	26.9	1	26.9	8.4	<.01
B	12.6	1	12.6	3.9	<.05
C	3.2	1	3.2	1.0	
AxB	4.3	1	4.3	1.3	
AxC	1.2	1	1.2	.4	
BxC	1.0	1	1.0	.3	
AxBxC	1.8	1	1.8	.6	
Within	792.2	248	3.2		
TOTAL	843.2	255			

A=SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

As shown in **Table 12** there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 8.4, p<.01} between the advantaged and disadvantaged Indian sample groups. The advantaged subjects usual shifts scores (mean = 6.4) was higher than the disadvantaged group (Mean = 5.95).

Table 12 also indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 3.9, p<.05} between the male and female groups of the Indian sample. Boys showed more usual shifts (mean = 6.3) than their girl counterparts (mean = 5.9).

Table 13: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Usual Shifts, Ethiopia.

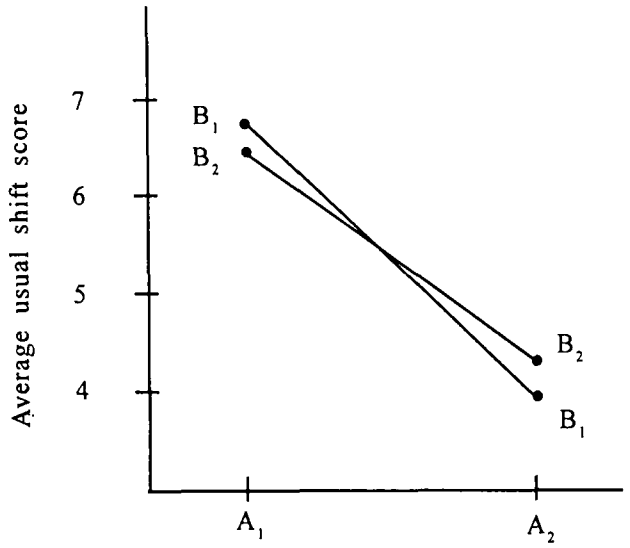
Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	324.3	1	324.3	94.5	<.01
B	.4	1	.4	-	
C	10.0	1	10.0	2.9	
AxB	21.1	1	21.1	6.2	<.05
AxC	1.0	1	1.0	.3	
BxC	4.8	1	4.8	1.4	
AxBxC	.8	1	.8	.2	
Within	850.6	248	3.43		
TOTAL	1213	255			

A=SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 13 shows that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 94.5,p <.01} between the Ethiopian advantaged and disadvantaged groups of adolescents. Advantaged group made more usual shifts (mean = 6.5) than their disadvantaged peers (mean = 4.3).

In addition, It is observed from **Table 13** that there is a significant interaction effect {F(1,248) = 6.2, p<.05} by SES and sex. Where as advantaged boys have the highest usual shifts scores (mean = 6.8) disadvantaged boys made the least (mean = 4.0). The interaction is presented in **Figure 2.**

Figure 2: Interaction of SES and Sex on Usual Shifts, (Ethiopia).



A_1=Advantaged, A_2= Disadvantaged, B_1= Male, B_2= Female

Table 14: Comparison of Ethiopian and Indian Groups in Terms of Usual Shifts

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	6.12	1.81	.09	7.89	<.01
Ethiopia	256	5.41	2.18			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	6.80	1.74	.31	.12	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	6.84	1.72			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	6.09	1.57	.28	.50	
Eth-A_1B_2	64	6.23	1.55			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	5.89	1.93	.35	5.34	<.01
Eth-A_2B_1	64	4.02	2.08			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	5.70	1.81	.11	10.45	<.01
Eth-A_2B_2	64	4.55	1.96			

A_1=Advantaged, A_2= Disadvantaged, B_1= Male, B_2= Female

Table 14 indicates that the Ethiopian and Indian groups of subjects differ significantly ($t = 7.89$, $p<.01$) in making usual shifts. The Ethiopian group appears to make lower usual shifts (mean = 5.41) than the Indian group (mean = 6.12). However, this differences seems to be a result of the differences between the disadvantaged groups. Where as the differences in usual shifts, between the advantaged Indian and advantaged Ethiopian groups seems to be minimal, the differences in making usual shifts between the Indian disadvantaged groups and Ethiopian disadvantaged groups is highly significant.

Table 15: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: No Shifts, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	6.6	1	6.6	4.1	<.05
B	9.4	1	9.4	5.9	<.05
C	3.3	1	3.3	2.1	
AxB	.1	1	.1	.1	
AxC	.2	1	.2	.1	
BxC	0	1	0	-	
AxBxC	.1	1	.1	-	
Error	399.1	248	1.6		
TOTAL	418.7	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 15 indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 4.1, p<.05} between the Indian advantaged and disadvantaged groups of adolescents . The disadvantaged group seems to be more rigid (mean = 2.8) than their advantaged counterparts (mean = 2.5) .

Table 15 also indicates that there is a significant main effect by the factor of sex {F(1,248) = 5.9, p<.05}. The male Indian sample group appears to be more rigid (mean = 2.8) than the female group (mean = 2.5).

Table 16: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: No Shifts (Rigidity), Ethiopia .

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	61	1	61	18.8	<.01
B	5.4	1	5.4	1.7	
C	4.3	1	4.3	1.3	
AxB	20.8	1	20.8	6.4	<.05
AxC	.4	1	.4	-	
BxC	11.0	1	11.0	3.4	
AxBxC	2.9	1	2.9	.9	
Error	803.4	248	3.24		
TOTAL	909.0				

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 16 indicates that there is a significant difference {F(1,148) = 18.8, p<.01} between the advantaged and disadvantaged groups of

Ethiopian adolescents. The disadvantaged group seems to be more rigid (mean = 3.5) than the advantaged group (mean = 2.5).

Table 16 also indicates that there is a significant interaction effect {F(1,248) = 6.4, p<.05} by SES and sex. Where as the advantaged male group showed the lowest no-shifts scores (mean = 2.4) the disadvantaged male group had the highest no-shifts scores (mean = 3.9).

Table 17: Comparison of Ethiopian and Indian Groups, No shifts (Rigidity).

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	2.64	1.28	.14	2.57	<.05
Ethiopia	256	3.00	1.88			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	2.66	1.48	.27	1.03	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	2.38	1.61			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	2.31	0.92	.24	1.45	
Eth-A_1B_2	64	2.66	1.66			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	3.02	1.21	.27	3.75	<.01
Eth-A_2B_1	64	3.92	1.80			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	2.59	1.34	.30	1.56	
Eth-A_2B_2	64	3.06	2.06			

A_1=Advantaged, A_2= Disadvantaged, B_1= Male, B_2= Female

It appears from **Table 17** that the Ethiopian group has significantly higher (mean = 3.00) no shift scores than the Indian group (t = 2.57, p<.05). This difference seems to be a result of the

significant difference between the Indian and Ethiopian disadvantaged male groups ($t = 3.75$, $p<.01$). The Ethiopian disadvantaged male group scored higher (mean = 3.92) than the Indian disadvantaged male group (mean = 3.02).

Table 18: **Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Unusual (erratic) shifts, Ethiopia.**

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	103.9	1	103.9	50.3	<.01
B	7.2	1	7.2	3.5	
C	1.2	1	1.2	.9	
AxB	0	1	0	-	
AxC	0.2	1	0.2	-	
BxC	1.1	1	1.1	.5	
AxBxC	5.9	1	5.9	2.8	
Within	512.5	248	2.1		
Total	632	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 18 indicates that there is a significant main effect by SES $\{F(1,248) = 50.3, p<.01\}$ on the unusual shifts scores of the Ethiopian samples of adolescents. The advantaged group had lower unusual shifts (mean = .95) than the disadvantaged group (mean = 2.23). All other comparisons are not statistically significant.

Table 19: Three-way ANOVA Summary Table: Unusual (erratic) Shifts, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	6.9	1	6.9	4.1	<.05
B	43.5	1	43.5	25.9	<.01
C	0	1	0	-	
AxB	3.4	1	3.4	2.2	
AxC	.3	1	.3	-	
BxC	1.1	1	1.1	.7	
AxBxC	1.3	1	1.3	.8	
Error	415.4	248	1.68		
Total	471.9	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 19 indicates that there appears to be a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 4.1, p<.05} by SES on the unusual shifts scores of the Indian sample. The disadvantaged group showed higher (mean = 1.4) erratic shifts scores than their advantaged counterparts (mean = 1.1).

Table 19 also reveals that there is a significant difference {F(1,248) = 25.9, p<.01} between the male and female groups of the Indian adolescents. Boys' scores of unusual shifts were lower (mean = .8) than the girls (mean = 1.6).

Table 20: Comparison of Indian and Ethiopian Groups in Terms of Unusual Shifts

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	1.23	1.35	.13	2.77	<.01
Ethiopia	256	1.59	1.57			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	.54	.96	.18	1.33	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	.78	1.08			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	1.59	1.51	.25	1.84	
Eth-A_1B_2	64	1.13	1.31			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	1.09	1.23	.24	1.08	
Eth-A_2B_1	64	2.06	1.49			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	1.70	1.34	.08	5.00	<.01
Eth-A_2B_2	64	2.39	1.74			

A_1=Adavantaged, A_2= Disadvantaged, B_1= Male, B_2=Female

Table 20 indicates that there is a significant difference (t = 2.77, p<.01) between the Indian and Ethiopian groups of adolescents in terms of unusual shifts. Indian group scored lower unusual shifts (mean = 1.23) than the Ethiopian group (mean = 1.59). This observed difference seems to be the result of the differences in the disadvantaged groups. The Ethiopian disadvantaged female group scored significantly higher (mean = 2.39) unusual shifts than the Indian disadvantaged female group (mean = 1.70), (t = 5, p<.01).

Table 21: Three-Way ANOVA Summary Table: Educational Aspiration, India.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	2956.6	1	2956.6	137.5	<.01
B	236.3	1	236.3	11.0	<.01
C	9.0	1	9.0	.4	
AxB	272.1	1	272.1	12.6	<.01
AxC	31.6	1	31.6	1.5	
BxC	19.2	1	19.2	.9	
AxBxC	20.5	1	20.5	1.0	
Within	5319.6	248	21.5		
Total	8864.9	255			

A= SES, B= Sex, C= Religion

Table 21 indicates that there is a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 137.5, p<.01} by SES among the Indian groups of adolescents in their educational aspirations scores. The advantaged group scored higher (mean = 30.0) than the disadvantaged group (mean = 23.2). This factor alone accounted for about 33% of the variability in the educational aspiration scores of the Indian sample.

Table 21 also indicates that there is significant main effect {F(1,248) = 11, p<.01} by the factor of sex on educational aspirations. The male group of the Indian students had higher educational scores (mean = 27.6) than their female counterparts (mean = 25.6) . However, this difference seems to be a result of the significant SES by Sex interaction effect (F(1,248) = 12.6, p<.01} on the educational aspiration

scores. Where as the advantaged female group had the highest educational aspirations (mean = 30.1), their disadvantaged female counterparts had the lowest educational aspirations (mean = 21.2). This interaction effect is presented by **Figure 3.**

Figure 3: Interaction of SES X Sex on Educational Aspiration, India.

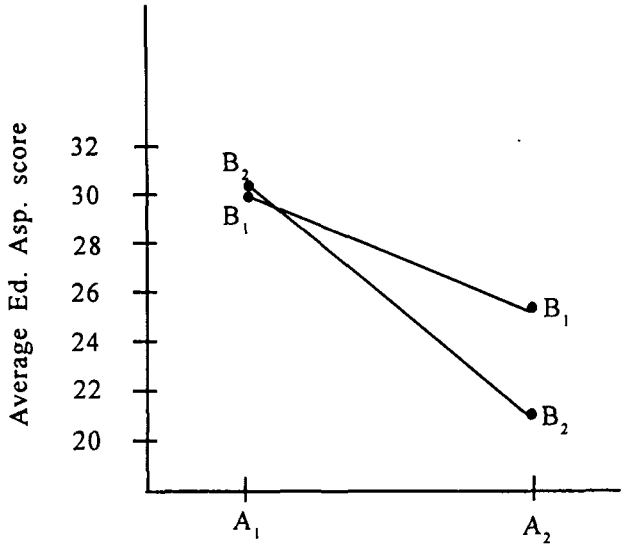


Table 22: Three Way ANOVA Summary Table: Educational Aspiration, Ethiopia.

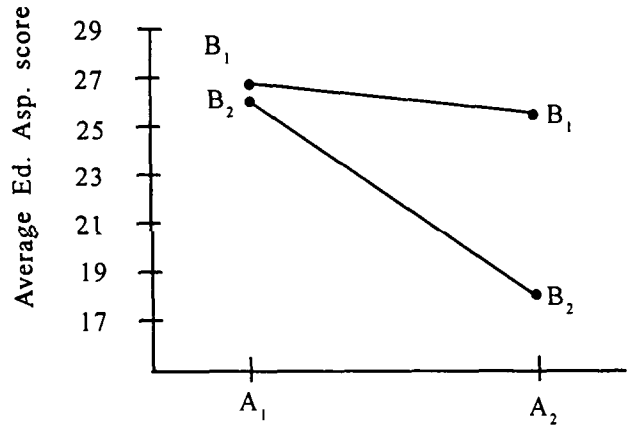
Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	3271	1	3271.0	167.7	<.01
B	331.1	1	331.1	16.9	<.01
C	125.5	1	125.5	6.5	<.05
AxB	261.1	1	261.1	13.4	<.01
AxC	42.7	1	42.7	2.2	
BxC	100.8	1	100.8	5.2	<.05
AxBxC	148.8	1	148.8	7.6	<.01
Error	4842.4	248	19.5		
Total	9124	255			

A = SES, B = Sex, C = Religion

Table 22 indicates that there is a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 167.7, p<.01} by SES on the educational aspiration scores of the Ethiopian group of adolescents. The educational aspiration scores the advantaged group (mean = 26.7) is higher than the scores of their disadvantaged counterparts (mean = 19.6). This factor accounted for about 36% of the total variation in the educational aspirations scores.

Table 22 also appears to indicate that there exists a significant difference {F(1,248) = 16.9, p<.01} between Ethiopian boys and girls. The male group scored higher (mean = 24.3) than the female group (mean = 22.0). However, this difference seems to be an outcome of the significant first order interaction effect {F(1,248) = 13.4, p<.01} by SES and sex. The difference between disadvantaged boys (mean = 21.8) and disadvantaged girls (mean = 17.4) seems to be more pronounced than the difference between advantaged boys (mean = 26.8) and advantaged girls (mean = 26.6). This interaction is presented by **Figure 4.**

Figure 4 : First order Interaction of SES and Sex on Educational Aspirations (Ethiopia).

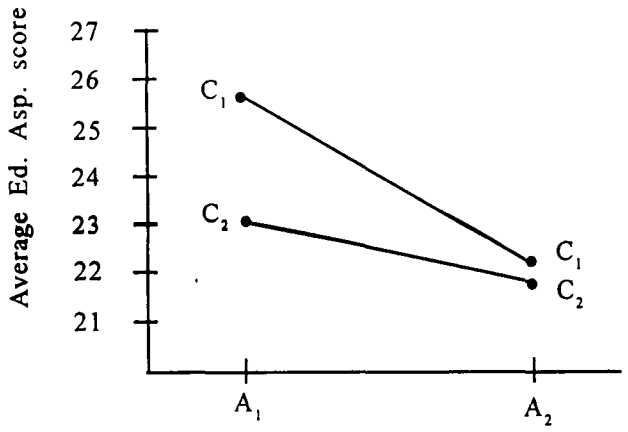


A_1=Advantaged, A_2=Disadvantaged , B_1=Male, B_2=Female

Table 22 also shows that there is a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 6.5, p<0.5} by religion among the Ethiopian sample regarding educational aspirations. The Christian group showed higher (mean = 23.8) educational aspiration scores than the Muslim group (mean = 22.4). However this result seems to be an outcome of a first order significant interaction effect {F(1,248) = 5.2, p<0.5} by sex and religion and a significant second order interaction effect {F(1,248) = 7.6 ,p<0.1} by SES, sex and religion.

Where as the difference in educational aspiration scores between the Christian females (mean = 22.1) and Muslim females (mean = 21.9) is minimal, the difference between Christian males (mean = 25.6) and Muslim males (mean = 23.0) is more pronounced. This interaction is presented by **Figure 5.**

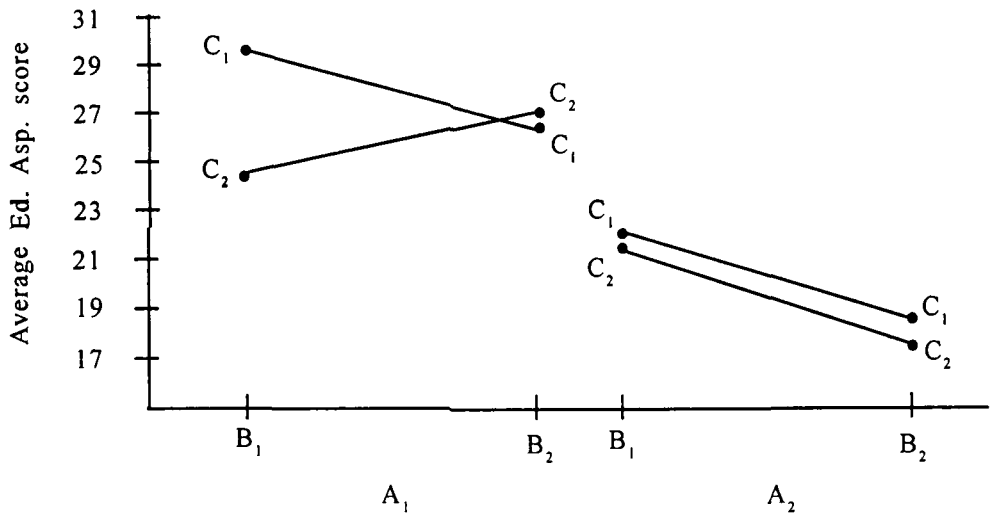
Figure 5: First order interaction of Sex and Religion of Educational Aspirations (Ethiopia).



B_1=Male, B_2=Female, C_1=Christian, C_2=Muslim

The significant main effect by religion and the significant first order interaction effect by sex and religion on the educational aspiration scores of the Ethiopian sample seem to the result of the significant second order interaction effect by SES, sex, and religion, as indicated earlier. Where as the difference in educational aspiration scores among the other subgroups (i.e. $A_2B_1C_1$ vs. $A_2B_1C_2$, $A_1B_2C_1$ vs. $A_1B_2C_2$ and $A_2B_2C_1$ vs. $A_2B_2C_2$) is some what minimal, the differences between the advantaged Christian male group (mean = 29.3) and advantaged Muslim male group (mean = 24.3) appears to be wider. This interaction is depicted by **Figure 6.**

Figure 6: Second Order Interaction By SES,Sex and Religion on Educational Aspirations (Ethiopia).



A_1=Advantaged, A_2=Disadvantaged, B_1=Male, B_2=Female, C_1=Christian, C_2=Muslims

Table 23: Comparison of Indian and Ethiopian Groups on Educational Aspirations.

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	26.61	5.88	.52	6.67	<.01
Ethiopia	256	23.14	5.97			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	29.94	5.15	.85	3.64	<.01
Eth-A_1B_1	64	26.84	4.45			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	30.08	4.12	.75	4.65	<.01
Eth-A_1B_2	64	26.59	4.39			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	25.20	4.14	.78	4.38	<.01
Eth-A_2B_1	64	21.78	4.69			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	21.22	4.87	.83	4.58	<.01
Eth-A_2B_2	64	17.42	4.60			

A_1=Advantaged, A_2=Disadvantaged, B_1=Male, B_2=Female

It can be observed from **Table 23** that the Indian sample group of adolescents' educational aspiration scores are statistically significantly higher than the Ethiopian group. In addition, all the comparisons among the subgroups of the two countries sample adolescents are significant beyond .01 level of probability in favour of the Indian group. It means the Indian group scored higher on Educational Aspiration Scale than their Ethiopian counterparts.

Table 24 : Three Way ANOVA Summary Table: Occupational Aspirations of Indian adolescents.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	1615.0	1	1615.0	42.8	<.01
B	1448.8	1	1448.8	38.4	<.01
C	44.7	1	44.7	1.2	
AxB	194.2	1	194.2	5.2	<.05
AxC	119.7	1	119.7	3.2	
BxC	4.2	1	4.2	-	
AxBxC	0.1	1	0.1	-	
Error	9349.7	248	37.7		
Total	12776.4	255			

Table 24 indicates that there exists a significant difference {F(1,248) = 42.8, p<.01} between the advantaged and disadvantaged Indian groups on their occupational aspiration scores. The advantaged group scored higher on OAS (mean = 59.6) than their disadvantaged counterparts (mean = 53.2). This factor alone accounted for about 13%

of the total variation in the occupational aspiration scores of the samples measured.

Table 24 also indicates that there is a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 38.4, p<0.1} by the factor of sex on the occupational aspirations of the Indian group of adolescents. The male subjects scored higher (mean = 59.2) than the female subjects (mean = 53.4). This factor contributed about 11% of the total variability.

It may also be seen in **Table 24** that there is a significant first order interaction effect {F(1,248) = 5.2, p<0.5} by SES and sex. Where as the difference in occupational aspiration scores between the advantaged males (mean = 59.8) and disadvantaged males (mean = 56.5) is some what small, the difference between advantaged females (mean = 56.7) and disadvantaged females (mean = 50.0) is much more higher. This interaction is shown by **Figure7.**

Figure 7: First Order Interaction by SES and Sex on occupational Aspirations (India)

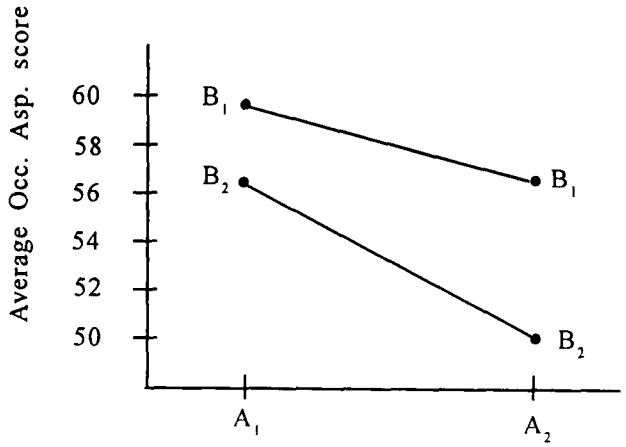


Table 25: The Way ANOVA Summery Table: Occupational Aspirations, Ethiopia

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
A	1382.9	1	1382.9	40.8	<.01
B	1185.8	1	1185.8	35.0	<.01
C	12.6	1	12.6	-	
AxB	449.0	1	449.0	13.2	<.01
AxC	190.8	1	190.8	5.6	<.05
BxC	111.8	1	111.8	3.3	
AxBxC	106.2	1	106.2	3.1	
Error	8412.6	248	33.9		
Total	11851.7	255			

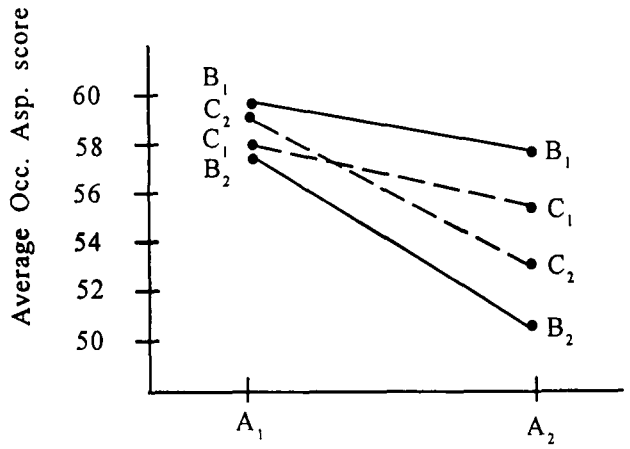
Table 25 indicates that there is a significant main effect {F(1,248) = 40.8, p<0.1} by the socio-economic status variable on the occupational aspirations of the Ethiopian sample adolescents. The advantaged group scored higher (mean = 58.3), than the disadvantaged group (mean = 54.3). This factor accounted for about 12% of the total variability in the Ethiopian samples occupational aspiration scores.

Table 25 also shows that there appears to exist a significant sex difference {F(1,248) = 35; p<.01} on the occupational aspirations of the Ethiopian sample group. Boys scored higher (mean = 58.8) than the girls (mean = 54.5). This factor accounted for about 10% of the total variance.

It also appears from **Table 25** that there is a significant first order interaction effect {F(1,248) = 13.2, p<.01} by SES and sex. Where as the difference in occupational aspiration scores between the advantaged males (mean = 59.8) and disadvantaged males (mean = 57.8) is relatively small, the difference becomes more wider among advantaged females (mean = 58.1) and disadvantaged females (mean = 50.8).

Table 25 also reveals that there exists a significant interaction effect {F(1,248) = 5.62, p<0.5) by the factors of SES and religion. The advantaged group of Muslims appear to have higher occupational aspirations (mean = 59.6) than the advantaged Christians (mean = 58.3). In the disadvantaged groups, the reverse trend is observed, Christians aspiring to higher status occupations (mean = 55.4) than their Muslim counterparts (mean = 53.2) .The above two interactions are presented by **Figure 8.**

Figure 8 : Two First order interactions on occupational Aspirations: SES and Sex, SES and Religion, Ethiopia.



A_1=Advantaged, A_2=Disadvantaged, B_1=Male, B2=Female, C1=Christian, C2= Muslim.

Table 26: Comparison of Indian and Ethiopian Groups on Occupational Aspirations

Group/Subgroup	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	p
India	256	55.73	7.06	.61	1.48	
Ethiopia	256	56.63	6.80			
Ind-A_1B_1	64	59.75	5.60	.89	.03	
Eth-A_1B_1	64	59.78	4.46			
Ind-A_1B_2	64	56.73	6.84	1.12	1.25	
Eth-A_1B_2	64	58.13	5.84			
Ind-A_2B_1	64	56.47	6.05	1.16	1.13	
Eth-A_2B_1	64	57.78	6.99			
Ind-A_2B_2	64	49.97	5.83	1.04	.83	
Eth-A_2B_2	64	50.83	5.94			

A_1=Advantaged, A_2=Disadvantaged, B_1=Male, B_2=Female

Table 26 appears to indicate that the difference in occupational aspiration scores between Ethiopian and Indian groups are nonsignificant. All other subgroups comparisons between the samples of the two countries are also insignificant.

Discussion:

The results of the present study revealed that the socio-economically disadvantaged groups of adolescents drawn from the two countries scored significantly lower I-Bids, higher goal-discrepancy, lower usual shifts, higher degree of rigidity and more erratic shifts. They also scored lower on educational and occupational aspiration scales as compared to their advantaged counterparts. Very high proportions of the total variability in each of the above seven measures of level of aspiration was accounted by this factor of disadvantaged/ advantaged (SES).

Disadvantage refers to the deprivation of physical, social and psychological opportunities that are considered necessary for adequate growth, progress and development of an individual. The findings of the present study seem to confirm that, irrespective of the culture and social setup where the person lives, and alongside with the many effects of disadvantage (as discussed in Chapters I and II), social and economic disadvantage appears to stifle the aspiration level (specific and general).

I-bid is the first goal that an individual sets for himself/herself on a task without any pervious knowledge regarding the attainability or non-attainability of the task. I-bid situation resembles to an unstructured stimulus situation employed in projective tests where the individual has to depend upon his/her motives, wishes, previous experiences and cognitive styles to make sense out of a seemingly ambiguous material. In I-bid situation also, the subject has no frame of reference for setting a goal, which is appropriate enough to motivate him/her and which is not too high beyond reach nor too low with in easy access. As the trials progress the goal becomes anchored to the subjects' success and failure experience on the previous trials (Hausmann, 1933; Frank, 1935, 1941; Gardner, 1940). Since the feeling and knowledge of success or failure on the task vis-a-vis to the set goals is initially absent, Is-bid cannot be considered as a measure of realism in the goal-setting behaviour. Thus, the factors that could be responsible for an individual's first level of aspiration are likely to be more of the real life experiences of success and failure (Sears, 1941), fear and failure and low need for achievement (Moulton, 1965), lack of opportunities (Ali and Khan, 1982), as well as lack of motivation to excel.

As indicated, the disadvantaged groups of the present study made significantly lower I-bids than the advantaged groups. This appears to indicate a tendency towards cautiousness, risk and failure avoidance.

The lowered I-bid of the disadvantaged subjects may also be attributed to the relative deprivation, low parental education, poor early socialisation, poor communication facilities, family structure and encouragement, low achievement need, low self-esteem, and norms of the achievement group to which the subject belongs. Some of above characteristics were particularly deduced from the responses of the samples of this present piece of research to the questionnaire. (cf. Tables 2 and 3).

Goal–discrepancy is the chief measure of level of aspiration. It is mainly an indicator of the realism-irrealism dimensions of a set level of aspiration. Lewin et al (1944) have expounded Escolana's Valence Theory to explain the realism-irrealism dimensions of level of aspiration. The psychological situation that exists at the time the individual makes up his/her mind about the level of the goal to be set on a task is essentially a choice situation. The choice is not between different tasks but between different goal levels on the same task which differ in the attractiveness or valence and the probability of attainment. The level of the goal set is determined by the product of the valence of the goal and the probability of attaining the goal. It is to be mentioned that the higher the goal set, the more positive the valence and the less the probability of attainment. Thus, the 'resultant weighted valence' is the product of the two dimensions. The theory maintains that the resultant weighted valence is highest if the goal-

setting is realistic. That is, when the valence of the goal is not too high (too attractive) and not too low (less attractive), as well as the probability of its attainment is .5. If the level of the preceding performance is taken as a frame of reference (temporary standard) and is considered as the most likely level of the next attainment, then a realistically set level of the next goal should be closer but bit above it. In this case, since the goal set is above own's performance, the goal will have more positive valence and the probability of attainment will not be very low (subject has already attained some success).

On the other hand, if the level of the goal set is too high or too low in relation to the previous performance, the goal setting is likely to indicate lack of realism because in both cases the resultant weighted valances would be very low. Thus, a realistic goal to be set should not be too high to reach nor too low to be fully sure of attainment. It is a level, which involves enough risk and challenge but remains with in the limit of attainability.

Atkinson (1956) has also explained the conditions involved in realistic- irrealistic goal setting dimensions. When an individual sets a goal in a task, he/she has to resolve the conflict that may arise from the following three factors. i) The attractiveness of success, ii) the repulsiveness of failure, and iii) the cognitive factor of the probability of judgement, that is, the probabilities of success and failure. For the

person with stronger achievement motivation, the resultant motivation will be positive if the probability of success is equal to .5. This degree of probability is considered as the point of maximum motivation to approach. The strength of motivation decreases as the probability of success increases to the direction of certainty of success (.9 or more) and as the probability of success decreases from .5 to near the certainty of failure (.1 or less). Thus, individuals would manifest strongest motivation in tasks of intermediate goal level where the probability of success is .5.

However, for a person with strong failure avoidance motive, he/ she would choose the easiest task with very high probability of success, because here the anxiety about failure is the greatest concern. In such cases, the motivation is low and they are indicative of irrealism.

In the aforesaid explanation, while making judgement regarding the goal-discrepancy scores of advantaged and disadvantaged group of adolescents drawn from India and Ethiopia, the results showed that the advantaged groups set their goal moderately above their past performance. It means the goals set by them on the task involved reasonable level of difficulty so that they can be attracted positively and with greater degree of probability of attainment. Setting of the goal moderately higher may be attributed to their strong tendency to face challenge, striving to achieve higher in life. Their high degree of

motivation can be deduced from their strong inner desire in maintaining low positive goal-discrepancy scores which is indicative of realism in goal-setting behaviour.

On the other hand, the disadvantaged groups were found to set their goals too low or very high in relation to their preceding performance. Setting the goal lower than past performance shows that the disadvantaged groups have strong tendency to avoid risk and failure that might be resulting from the goals set by themselves. This self-protecting activity may produce the satisfaction that not only the targets put forth could be achieved, but could also be excelled - "better than expected". The seemingly psychological satisfaction is however, a kind of deviation from the situation related objective reality. The majority of the Ethiopian and Indian disadvantaged group of adolescents are found to fall in this category.

Some of the disadvantaged adolescents set very high level goals. This they do, in order to protect their self-image. Though the probability of attainment of the goal set is low, its non-attainment would not produce the feeling of failure and self-discouragement. From this mode of goal setting behaviour they seem to have shown their characteristics to maintain their blurred self-image. Such types of individuals are to be categorized as socially motivated rather than being self-motivated, which is a dimension of irrealism in goal setting behaviour.

Factors as fear of failure, unfounded hopes, lack of realism in life in general and standard of achievement of the group the individual belongs to can be suggested. The disadvantaged individuals were also found to possess external locus of control of reinforcement which is highly correlated with irrealism (Evans and Herr, 1991). It can be expected that individuals who are powerless over their destiny might believe in chance than effort.

The explanations seem to be befitting with the disadvantaged group because they experience many factors in their day to day life, in the process of socialisation and environmental experiences. The results of the present study concerning the goal-discrepancy scores of advantaged and disadvantaged subjects can be compared with the findings of the researchers of Indian and Western Countries - Gould (1941), Josephine (1970), Soares and Soares (1971), Chaubey (1971), Muthaya (1971), Swaliha (1979), Khan (1986), and Jabeen (1993). However, the findings of the present research do not resemble with the studies conducted by Sinha (1969), Hussain (1979), Tiwari (1984).

The results obtained concerning shifts of disadvantaged groups drawn from India and Ethiopia showed significantly lower usual shifts, higher stubborn tendency and more erratic shifts when compared with their advantaged counterparts of their respective countries.

Shifts are manifestations of rigidity, flexibility, cautiousness, and

adjustment (Rotter, 1945,1954; Sears, 1941; Ali, 1975; Mohanty, 1978). Usual shifts are the indicators of flexibility and adjustment in light of self-competitive situation with previous performances. The advantaged groups of adolescents showed this trend more frequently than the disadvantaged groups.

Rigidity is the trend which is maintained by keeping the goal at the same level irrespective of experiencing success or failure. Erratic shift is referred to as raising of the goal after failure and lowering of the goal level after success. These responses are indicators of some form of emotional problems, instability, and maladjustment in making self-judgements. The disadvantaged groups projected more obstinate tendency and erratic shifts than the advantaged groups. Such responses might indicate that the disadvantaged groups are more unstable and lacking in contact with reality.

Educational aspirations, being the most significant determinates of eventual educational attainment (Gottfredson, 1981; Majoribanks, 1984), guide what adolescents learn in school, how they prepare for adult life and what they eventually do (Haas, 1992). Adolescence is a stage at which status attainment becomes relevant and decisions on educational and occupational plans are made (Sewell, Haller, and Portes 1969). That is why high school years are critical times in the life decision making process because "students are making decisions about college

or work options that dramatically affect their lives" (Multon, Heppner and Lapan, 1995).

The results of the present research indicated that in both India and Ethiopia, the advantaged adolescents showed significantly higher educational aspirations than the disadvantaged groups. These findings are almost consistent with many Western and Indian researches conducted in this direction (Solorzano, 1992; Hossler and stage, 1992; McCraken, Barcinas and Wims, 1991; Triplett and Jarjura, 1997; Ahmad, 1968; Jafri, 1992).

Occupational aspirations of adolescents have been found to be predictive of later achievement (Hotkiss and Borrow, 1990; Majoribanks, 1997). Farmer (1985) has proposed educational and career aspirations as the two important career motivation variables.

The findings of this study indicate that both in India and Ethiopia, the disadvantaged groups of adolescents consistently and significantly scored lower occupational aspirations than their advantaged counterparts. The findings are in the direction of similar research reports (Rojewiki and Yang, 1997; Cook, et al., 1996; McDonald and Jessel, 1992; Braugrat and Braugrat, 1996; Chung, loeb and Gonzo, 1996; Swaminathan and Paravity, 1983; Marjoribanks, 1992,1997).

The lowered educational and occupational aspirations, and marked low scores in general aspirations of the disadvantaged groups may be

discussed and explained by a multitude of environmental, personal and personality factors.

It is observed by investigators that mothers' and fathers' education levels and occupational statuses do influence the aspirations of their off springs. King and Multon (1996) have found that higher levels of mothers' education affected their off springs' career aspirations through real and vicarious role models in the professional fields. Karraker (1992) has also found that mothers' education and occupational status was a significant predictor of the educational plans of their children - the higher the status, the higher the educational aspirations. Wilson and Wilson (1992), Hossler and Stage (1992) have also reported that as the level of the parents' education increased, the educational aspirations of the children also increased.

The educational levels of the parents' of the samples of the present study is presented in Table 2. It can evidently be observed that in both countries, the parents of the advantaged groups are highly educated than the parents of the disadvantaged groups. It seems to mean that child's aspiration and parental education are likely to be positively correlated.

It is also evidenced that as the level of parental education increased, their aspirations to their sons and daughters were found to rise. The parental aspirations and expectations strongly influence the

students' educational and career aspirations (Walker and Sutherland, 1993; Owens, 1992; Marjoribanks, 1992). The path model of Hossler and stage (1992) also depicts that parents' education did have its impact on students' aspirations through parental expectations.

When we consider the sampled adolescents of the present study, parents' educational and occupational aspirations for their children are presented in Tables 4 and 5. The figures appear to be consistent with available literature reviewed. With regard to the occupational and educational aspirations of the parents of the advantaged groups, as reported by the subjects of the present study, was that their parents held higher levels of educational and occupational aspirations for their children when compared with the parental aspirations of the disadvantaged groups.

Though the psychological mechanism involved between parents' education, occupation and aspirations and children's aspirations is not adequately documented, likely explanations are provided by some. Smith (1981; cited by Wilson and Wilson, 1992) proposes four alternative theoretical interpretations for the observed relationships.

First, it was assumed that when parents were perceived to have high educational training, as measured by the level of formal education, adolescents would be more inclined to adopt their aspirations. When educational training was perceived to be low,

adolescents were less inclined to adopt parental aspirations and more inclined to aspire to parents' educational level. The analysis of the data of the present research seems to be in the similar direction for the majority of the subjects of the sampled groups.

The disadvantaged adolescents might be perceiving less value for education and bleak possibility of getting benefit out of higher education. They seem to believe in immediate rewards because they might be feeling insecure about their long awaiting future. It is a well recognized fact that education provides delayed rewards. Thus, it is likely to appear that the disadvantaged groups of this study feel uneasy to await much longer and aspired lower levels of education which in turn might have led them to aspire to lower status occupations.

Second, it was assumed that in some cases where parents are less educated, and were perceived to have low aspirations for their boys and girls, but adolescents still aspired to higher levels, one possible explanation may be the result of differential exposure to current educational norms.

While analysing the data concerning the aspirations of the adolescents, the present researcher observed that some of the disadvantaged scored high in educational and occupational aspiration scales. When background characteristic of these subjects were verified, it was found that these students were reported to have higher

motivation and taking much interest in studies and their scholastic achievement (marks) were also high. Thus, irrespective of other barriers for progress, their educational aspiration scores were high.

The third alternative assumed that certain parental child rearing practices might increase the inclination of adolescents to adopt parental aspirations. In this case, when children interact with their parents, they may perhaps notice from the behaviour of the parents what they expect from them. This kind of thinking becomes intense and the child may be fully encouraged and tries to make efforts to come up to expectations of their parents. Being self-motivated seems to develop aspiring high in life. The fourth alternative is that parents were able to give necessary economic support to their adolescents who have high aspirations, based on their SES.

According to Young and Friesen (1992), parents influence their off springs through two mechanisms - intentional action and non-intentional action (as parents occupation, education). In both cases, the more educated the parents (as is the case with the advantaged groups of the present sample), the better planned will be parents intentional actions in influencing their children that may likely to result in higher level of aspirations of the adolescents, as confirmed by the results of the present study.

Teachers and counsellors aspirations and support for children, type of school and facilities made available in school are also important inputs for the development of aspirations among the students. If students get the impression of higher and objective expectations from their teachers and if it is communicated adequately, they are likely to develop higher and more realistic aspirations in themselves. This view is supported by some researchers. (Brantlinger, 1992; Okey, Snyder and Hackett, 1993; Owens, 1992).

As Tables 4 and 5 indicate, the samples of the present study differed by their perceptions of their teachers' expectancies. The majority of the advantaged groups reported that their teachers hold high aspirations for them. On the other side most of the disadvantaged Ethiopian and Indian sampled adolescents are not sure and even do not know about what their teachers are thinking about them. This kind of response indicates that the disadvantaged students enjoy little interpersonal relationships with their teachers. Less teacher support and lesser guidance might have resulted in the observed lowered aspirations as found by this present study. Brantlinger (1992) has given likely explanations for the lack of contact between school personnel and disadvantaged students. (i) Counsellors and teachers may be intimidated by high income clientele who impose their needs to such an extent that their is no time left for the poor. (ii) Teachers, aware of the scarcity of "decent" lower class job opportunities, may choose to remain silent.

Some investigators have shown parental divorce/separation as a likely reason for lowered level of adolescents' aspirations (McDonald and Jessel 1992; Cook et al, 1996). Ethiopian sample groups were asked about their parents' martial status. The responses indicated that while 92% of the advantaged group were from intact families, the figure was only 59% for the disadvantaged group.

Academic achievement levels, ability and intelligence affect the level of aspirations. The higher the achievement, the higher the level of aspirations (Hossler and stage, 1992; Marijoribanks, 1992,1997; Rojewiski and Yang, 1997). As Table 3 indicates, the advantaged groups have higher examination marks than the disadvantaged groups. The lower achievement of the disadvantaged samples might resulted in their lowered aspiration levels.

According to Walker and Sutherland (1993), not only the structural barriers and systemic limitations imposed on the disadvantaged groups lowers their status aspirations, but also perception of the opportunity structure inhibits the development of aspirations in adolescents. As the disadvantaged samples of the present study are adolescents, it may be assumed that they are well aware of the structural limitations and opportunities that around them and thus, lower their aspirations as an adaptive response.

Personality dimensions as self-concept, locus of control, achievement motivation and self-efficacy predict achievement and aspirations in varying degrees. These constructs are sometimes termed as social-motivational variables because they are motivators of individual's behaviour that develop in the context of interactions that take place between the individual with others. It is evident that disadvantaged have been found to possess poor self-concept (social identity) Johnson (1992), low self efficiency (Okay, Snyder and Hackette 1993), external locus of control (Luzzo and Ward, 1995; Evans and Herr, 1991), lower level of self-esteem (McDonald and Jessel, 1992; which in turn resulted in lowered achievement, aspirations and expectations. The disadvantaged groups of the present study may also be lacking in adequate social-motivational variables and thus might have ended up in lowered and unrealistic general and specific levels of aspirations, which is confirmed by the findings of this study.

The results of the present study also showed that among the Ethiopian group, the female subjects scored significantly lower I-bids and significantly higher goal- discrepancy than the male group. These results indicate that Ethiopian sampled girls are found to be more unrealistic and more possessed with the motive of failure avoidance.

Concerning sex differences in shifts among the Ethiopian sample, mixed results are found by SES X Sex interaction effects (Table 13

and 15). When the advantaged group alone is considered, girls scored lower usual shifts and higher rigidity scores than boys in line with their status on I-bid and goal-discrepancy scores. On the other hand, disadvantaged groups showed different pattern which is some what mixed. Disadvantaged Ethiopian girls were found to have higher usual shifts and lower rigidity scores than their disadvantaged male counterparts. The goal-setting behaviour of the disadvantaged male and female groups appears to be contradictory and thus, it seems to be more intricated to provide explicit explanations. On the one hand, disadvantaged females scored lower I-bids and higher goal-discrepancy scores than their male peers indicating that they are more unrealistic than the boys. On the other hand, they are more responsive and flexible to success and failure than the boys. Further investigation on the specific context of the Ethiopian disadvantaged males and females may shade some light.

On the erratic shifts scores, the difference between Ethiopian male and female sample groups was found statistically insignificant.

Among the Indian sample, the male and female groups were found not to significantly differ in terms of I-bids and goal-discrepancy scores. These results are somewhat similar with the findings of Saraswati (1929) and Khan (1986). However, one interaction - SES X Sex is observed in the I-bid scores (Table-7). The advantaged girls are

found to score higher I-bids than their male peers while the disadvantaged girls showed the opposite trend. Parents of the advantaged girls might have constantly boosted the morale of their daughters than their sons.

Concerning shift scores of the Indian sample, mixed results are found. Boys scored higher usual shifts than girls implying that they are more flexible in responding to success and failure than girls. Girls were also found to be more erratic than boys. On the other hand, boys were more rigid than girls. The mixed results of this study may be attributed to the tendency that, in the Indian context, girls are catching up with boys in the spheres of life. The rapid economic growth and industrialization, the role of IT, the general gender awareness, rapid transformation of the society into modernization might have contributed to such minimal differences by sex in the level of aspiration of the Indian group of adolescents. If for instance, we take the achievement of boys and girls (Table 3), the difference in the obtained marks between Indian boys and girls is almost invisible. But in the case of Ethiopia, the boys have achieved higher marks than the girls.

Thus, for the Ethiopian group hypotheses 2.1 and 2.2 are accepted and hypothesis 2.3 is not accepted. In the case of Indian sample, hypothesis 2.1 and 2.2 and 2.3 can not be accepted.

In the sample groups of both Ethiopia and India, there are

significant main effects by Sex (Tables 21 and 22), girls having lower educational aspirations than boys. However, in both cases the difference was due to the interaction effects of SES X Sex. The difference between the advantaged boys and advantaged girls is not significant. The main differences in cases of both countries were among the disadvantaged groups. Disadvantaged girls aspired to very low educational levels than the disadvantaged males. The retarding effect of disadvantage when combined with the female sex is exemplified by this finding. The implication is that while the advantaged girls are closing in the gap with boys in terms of educational aspirations, on the disadvantaged side, the gap is still wide.

The advantaged girls possessing higher educational aspirations are discussed in the light of earlier researches. Higher parental expectations for females, higher GPA, more activities in high school (Hossler & Stage, 1992); appropriate counselling, attitudinal changes of the society (Lightbody and Durendell, 1996), are some of the suggestions. These factors may also work for the Ethiopian and Indian advantaged girls.

In contrary to the findings of the present study, the American disadvantaged girls had higher educational aspirations than the disadvantaged males (Chung, Loeb and Gonzo, 1996; Solorzano, 1992; Walker and Sutherland, 1993). Whether this difference is a result of economic and social development, or cultural values needs further investigation.

When we consider the occupational aspirations of boys and girls of the Indian and Ethiopian samples, girls consistently and significantly had lower occupational aspirations than their respective male counterparts. The difference was even more wider among the disadvantaged groups as found by the interaction effects of SES X Sex (Tables 24 and 25).

Even in the face of the high educational aspirations among the Ethiopian and Indian groups of advantaged girls, their occupational aspirations are observed to be low when compared with their advantaged male counterparts. This finding is to be discussed in the light of Uplaonkar (1983) suggestions. Female students were more likely to use higher education as a status symbol, as an end in itself, rather than as a means of gainful employment. The sex differences in occupational aspirations appear to be falling in the line of explanations provided in the review part. For instance, we can observe from Table 4 that parents of the girls were perceived by their daughters to have lower occupational aspirations for them than the parents of the male groups.

The results obtained need to be seen with caution since a number of studies have yielded the girls were possessing higher level of occupational aspirations than boys (Pippis, 1995; McDonald and Jessel 1992; Malberg 1996; Rojweski and Yang, 1997).

As already discussed in the review part, minority status can be a source of disadvantage. However, the results of this study indicated that in almost all measures of aspirations, i) in the Indian sample, the differences between Hindu and Muslim groups were found to be insignificant and ii) among the Ethiopian sample, the differences between the Muslim group and Christian group were insignificant. Though the comparison groups were slightly different on some measures of general and specific aspirations, the differences were short of significance because only religion could not be attributed as a factor that led to behave in similar manner by all the comparison groups.

However, it is to be mentioned that among the Ethiopian group of adolescents, there was a significant main effect by the factor of religion (Table 22) on educational aspirations, viz., Christians scoring higher than their Muslim counterparts. But this main effect is obscured by a first-order interaction effect where Christian boys hold higher educational aspirations than Muslim boys. When the female subjects were compared the differences by religion became minimal. Again the two significant effects appear to be the results of a second-order interaction effect of SES X Sex X Religion. The advantaged Christian boys' were found to score higher on educational aspirations than the advantaged Muslim boys.

In addition, Table 25 indicates that Ethiopian advantaged Muslims exhibited significantly higher occupational aspirations than their advantaged Christian counterparts.

The differences observed between Christian and Muslim advantaged groups where Muslim advantaged group scored lower on educational aspirations and higher on occupational aspirations can be interpreted in terms of the nature of their parents' occupations. On close examination of the biographic information furnished by the respondents, it appears that the parents of the advantaged Christian group hold high government positions and also are found in high skilled professions. As regard to the parents of the advantaged Muslim group, it was observed that they serve in their own established businesses and in the economic sectors (e.g. import-export), and the level of education is lower in this community while the Christian parents are relatively highly educated. These factors could have influenced the aspirations of these groups of adolescents.

The differences in these groups can also be discussed in such a way that advantage and disadvantage are relative concepts. A person may be advantaged in one aspect of life and disadvantaged in another. The same logic seems to apply in the case of Ethiopian advantaged Muslim and Christian subjects. Thus, the behaviour of the offspring on aspirations appeared to be influenced by their parents' education levels and occupation statuses.

The findings of this lack of significant aspirations differences between the majority and minority groups of adolescents need to be seen with much caution. Whether the differences were insignificant because the samples were drawn from the two cities where there is diversity and interaction among different groups of people or whether differences in aspirations by religious affiliation are diminishing in the two countries need further extensive investigations.

The comparisons of the total groups and subgroup of the Indian and Ethiopian samples showed some significant differences. The I-bids of advantaged female Ethiopians was lower than their Indian counterparts. The disadvantaged Indian group of adolescents showed more flexibility in their goal-setting than the disadvantaged Ethiopian group. Disadvantaged Ethiopian boys were found to be more rigid on level of aspiration test than their Indian counterparts. Disadvantaged Ethiopian girls showed more erratic shifts when compared with the disadvantaged Indian girls. More importantly, it is to be cited here that in all the comparison groups, Ethiopian sampled adolescents scored very low on educational aspiration scale as compared to their Indian counterparts.

There is a need to have explanation for the above observed differences. It is witnessed that the overall social and economic development of India after independence is highly commendable. The

effort of its people have led the country to social advancement and economic development. The great leaders of this country gave much emphasis on providing quality education to its citizens. By their effort and the effort of elite country men, there are many universities, colleges and schools imparting education in diverse fields. The people of this country undoubtedly enjoy vast educational opportunities and the presence of highly qualified and experienced educators and professionals could have served as good models for the adolescents of the present research.

On the other hand, the political instability and perpetual dictatorial regimes in Ethiopia, economic depression, drought and endless wars might have distracted the people of this country from the mainstream of growth and development. This might have resulted in the observed adolescents lower aspirations. For an Ethiopian youth, the future seems bleak and uncertain. Many Ethiopian adolescents appear to pass their days in perpetual fear because they might be caught between warring factions or may be forced to fight. This is what many of the adolescents responded when they were asked about their fears and hopes of their future. The problem appears to be more severe among the disadvantaged group of adolescents. A close examination of the comparisons of the subgroups indicates that the difference seems to be more pronounced among the disadvantaged groups drawn from the two countries. If we place the countries of the world in a continuum of

development, some are advantaged while others are not. In this regard, India is relatively more developed and advantaged and Ethiopia is relatively disadvantaged. So it is interesting to question whether being disadvantaged in a disadvantaged country depresses aspirations more when compared with the disadvantaged in an advantaged country. In other words, the advantaged Ethiopians seem to be little affected by the conditions of their country and thus have aspired more or less similarly like their advantaged counterparts in India.

The observed differences between the Indian and Ethiopian groups could also be explained in the light of the theory of Traditional vs. Modern man. Inkeles and Smith (1974, cited by Horowitiz and Mosher, 1997) proposed that as technology and economy progress, citizens become more of modern (e.g. active public participation, restricted family size, work commitment, exposure to mass media, etc.), than from being traditional. In one study, Ethiopian adolescents were found to be traditional (Horowitiz and Mosher, 1977). Obviously, The disadvantaged Ethiopians might be more traditional than the advantaged Ethiopians. It is also possible that the Indian sampled groups to be relatively more of modern. Thus, the difference in the level of aspirations of the adolescents of these two countries might be explained in this perspective.

Chapter-V

SUMMARY
&
SUGGESTIONS

SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS

Aspirations whether specific or general, are the goals a person sets for herself/himself in tasks which have personal significance. Level of aspiration refers to the standard a person expects and hopes in a given performance. Level of aspiration has been suggested as an important factor of one's personality, as a determining factor of a person's future achievement and attainment and also as determinant for the adoption of new practices. Disadvantage is referred to physical, social and psychological conditions which restrict a person's all round development.

The purpose of the present study was to compare the general and specific levels of aspiration of disadvantaged and advantaged groups of adolescents drawn from Ethiopia and India. Further, it was also intended to compare the Indian and Ethiopian adolescents in terms of their general and specific levels of aspirations .

Three major independent variables - SES sex, and religion were used as the principal conditions that may place groups of individuals relatively at disadvantage. The I-bids, goal-discrepancy, shifts, educational and occupational aspirations were treated as dependent variables.

Based on available research literature reviewed, the following hypotheses were proposed.

1. I-bids of the disadvantaged groups would be lower than advantaged groups.

1.2 The goal discrepancy scores of the disadvantaged groups would be greater than the advantaged groups.

1.3 Disadvantaged groups would score lower usual shifts, higher no-shifts and higher erratic shifts than the advantaged groups.

1.4 & 1.5 The occupational and educational aspiration scores of the advantaged groups would be higher than the disadvantaged groups.

2. I-bids of the female groups would be lower than the male groups.

2.2 The goal-discrepancy scores of the females would be higher than the male group.

2.3 The male groups would score higher usual shifts , lower rigidity and lower unusual shifts than the female groups.

2.4 & 2.5 The occupational and educational aspiration scores of the male groups would be higher than the female groups.

3.1 I-bids of the Muslim groups would be lower than the Hindu group (India), Christian group (Ethiopia).

3.2 The goal-discrepancy scores of Muslim groups would be higher than the Hindu group (India), Christian group (Ethiopia).

3.3 The Muslim group , would score lower usual shifts higher no-shifts, and higher erratic shifts than their respective Hindu and Christian groups.

3.4 & 3.5 The Hindu group (India), Christian group (Ethiopia), would score higher occupational and educational aspirations than their respective Muslim Groups.

In addition, specific questions were asked about the level of aspiration of Indian and Ethiopian adolescents to be used as guides for comparison of the two groups.

Based on the distinguishing criteria in terms of the parents' educational level, parents' occupational status, family monthly income and quality of schooling, the advantaged and disadvantaged groups of adolescents were identified . Two cities - Aligarh (India) and Addis Ababa (Ethiopia) - were taken. From each city, the advantaged and disadvantaged groups were selected from private and government managed schools. Using stratified random sampling technique. A total of 256 grade eight and nine students were selected from each city, half of whom were identified as disadvantaged and remaining half as advantaged. Each group was balanced by sex and religion. Thus, the total number of subjects that participated in this study was 512.

The required data for this study was gathered by using a questionnaire, a test and two scales. By means of the questionnaire, subjects' background information and their perceptions of their parents' and teachers' aspirations for them were asked. The responses given by the subjects were used for the analyses and discussion of results obtained.

The L.A Coding test of Ansari and Ansari (1964) was administrated to sampled adolescents of the two countries as a measure of general level of aspiration. From the subjects' responses to the test, three main scores that are widely accepted as indicators of the dimensions of the level of aspiration were calculated.

(i) I-bids, which are indicators of initial goal levels and that are usually influenced by previous experiences of success and failure.

(ii) Goal-discrepancy score, which is the chief measure of level of aspiration and is considered as indicator of the realism -irrealism dimensions of goal -setting behaviour.

(iii) Shifts (usual, rigid, erratic) which are indicators of flexibility and rigidity of goal levels in relation to previous performances.

The Occupational Aspiration Scale (Grewal, 1975), which is reported to be widely used in India as a reliable measure of occupational status aspirations of different groups was selected for the present study. While the scale was directly administrated to Indian subjects in its original form, its slightly adapted version was used for the Ethiopian adolescents. The adaptation was carried out by the present researcher and the test -retest reliability of the adapted scale was quite satisfactory.

An Educational Aspiration Scale was developed and validated for the purpose of measuring the educational aspirations of the sampled

adolescents of the two countries. The scale was found to be reasonably valid and reliable.

The questionnaire, the scales and the test were consecutively administrated to small groups of subjects in their schools vicinities. Maximum care and precautions were taken to make the testing conditions as similar as possible from school to school.

For each country, the data analyses were done separately. The effects of the three independent variables on each of the dependent variables were analysed by three way SES X Sex X Religion ANOVA, fixed model. The main effects and interaction effects were analysed accordingly. To compare the levels of aspiration of the adolescents of the two countries, t-test was used. Separate comparisons were made on each of the dependent variables by using the total scores of the Ethiopian and Indian groups. For further comparisons, each country's sampled adolescents were categorized in to four disjoint sets - Advantaged Male, Advantaged Female, Disadvantaged Male and Disadvantaged Female. The Indian sub-groups were compared against their Ethiopian subgroup counterparts. From the analyses of the data the following results were obtained.

The disadvantaged groups of adolescents in both of the countries were found to have lower I-bids, higher goal-discrepancy scores, lower usual shifts, higher rigidity and more erratic shifts scores as well as

lower educational and occupational aspirations when compared with their advantaged counterparts of their respective countries. All the observed differences were statistically significant. The results imply that the disadvantaged groups of adolescents are likely to be less realistic, more stubborn and more erratic in their goal-setting behaviour as compared to their advantaged groups. The disadvantaged also appeared to possess low status aspirations.

In India, except for occupational aspirations, girls and boys did not differ significantly in all other measures of level of aspirations. This finding appeared to indicate that girls are closing in the gap with boys in terms of level of aspiration.

On the other hand, Ethiopian girls were found to have lower initial aspirations, higher goal-discrepancies and lower educational and occupational aspirations when compared with their male counterparts. The gap was found to be even more wider among the disadvantaged boys and girls. Ethiopian disadvantaged girls were found to be least ambitious with regard to the measures of level of aspiration employed.

In both countries, in almost all the major indices of aspirations, significant differences were not found by the factor of religion.

When Indian and Ethiopian adolescents were compared, the results showed that there were some significant differences in terms of shifts and educational aspirations. Indian adolescents were found to be more

flexible in setting their goals and had higher educational aspirations level than the Ethiopian adolescents. Although the other comparisons were not statistically significant, the mean scores of the Indian group were slightly higher than the mean scores of the Ethiopian group on most of the measures. When the comparisons among the subgroups were analysed, it was found that the observed differences between the adolescents of these two countries were largely due to the aspiration differences among the disadvantaged Indian and Ethiopian groups. In other words, the differences between advantaged Indians and advantaged Ethiopians were negligible.

Suggestions:

In the light of the findings of the present study and the discussion that followed, the following suggestions are to be taken into account.

i. This research is the first of its kind in Ethiopia. The samples selected represent a very small section of the society. There are many diverse groups in the country. Since it is a pioneer study, it is recommended that this study be replicated and other similar researches on aspirations be conducted in order to arrive at a general understanding on the level of aspiration of the adolescents of this country.

ii. The findings indicated that in India, sex differences in level of aspiration appeared to be minimal. Whether such results are the general trend or the specific outcome of adolescents who have been selected from the vicinity and nearby schools of AMU campus need to be verified by conducting further studies.

iii. Differences in aspiration levels by religious affiliation were found to be highly diminished. But in some other cultures minority groups were found to possess lower level of aspirations than the majority groups. Whether the results obtained are the specific tendencies of the two cities or the general trend in the two countries also needs further investigation

iv. From the results of the present study, it could be inferred that the economic and social backwardness of a country (Ethiopia in this case) appeared to differentially affect the advantaged and disadvantaged adolescents' level of aspiration. The advantaged groups seemed to be much less affected by the conditions of their country than the disadvantaged in terms of level of aspiration. Whether this trend is consistent with other outcome variables such as ability, achievement, motivation, self-concept, locus of control, self-efficacy estimates, etc. are interesting problem questions for comparative researchers.

v. From the goal-discrepancy scores of the disadvantaged groups, it can be inferred that there is a strong tendency of risk avoidance. If a

section of a society do not courage to take moderate level of risk on their own, it would have serious consequences to the development of a nation. It would also mean that the disadvantaged groups, which in fact comprise the majority of the work force, are alienated from the mainstream of progress and development. The concerned bodies need to be informed and be aware of the hazards of the consequences to their countries and take necessary intervention measures.

vi. The knowledge gained about aspiration differences can provide information about the self-imposed and community imposed restrictions and the opportunities perceived by disadvantaged youth for appropriate corrections and policies formulations.

vii. Schools and curriculum developers can better make use of the results to design and integrate some aspects of the predictor variables (SES, Gender) in the syllabi to increase adolescents' cognitive future orientation. Students should be constantly encouraged to feel that they are valuable members of the school community and be kept involved in various of activities of the school for their all round development, so that their morale, self-efficacy, motivation, etc. would be boosted that might lead them to higher levels of aspirations and achievement.

viii. Parents can benefit from the results of the study by becoming aware of the effects of parental values and support on the aspirations of their adolescents. This could be accomplished by sensitizing social

workers and family life educators about the problem so that they can help parents to become better socializers of their adolescents.

ix. Personnel engaged in students affair practices could also benefit from the results of this study in organizing student orientation programmes, providing academic advising and guidance.

On the bases of the suggestions it can be argued that if care and proper attention is given by the bodies concerned (schools, home, NGO's, GO's), disadvantaged adolescents' aspirations could be boosted with very small amount of inputs such as money, materials and manpower.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-I

Questionnaire-1

1) Name _____ 2) Class _____
3) Sex _____ 4) Religion _____
5) How much is your family monthly income-including yours? (Check one category by marking an X sign)
   ____ a) Below Rs.2500/Br.150
   ____ b) Between Rs.2500 and Rs.6000/Br.150-300
   ____ c) Between Rs.6000 and Rs.12,000/Br.300-800
   ____ d) Between Rs.12,000 and Rs.20,000/Br.800-1600
   ____ e) More than Rs.20,000/Br.1600
6) What is your mother's level of education? What is your father's level of education? (For each parent please mark an 'X' on the spaces to the left of the options)

Mother	Father	
____	____	a) Less than grade 2.
____	____	b) Between grades 3 and 8.
____	____	c) Some high school.
____	____	d) High school certificate.
____	____	e) Some college.
____	____	f) Bachelor's degree.
____	____	g) Master's degree, Ph.D., or equivalent.

7) What is your mother's present occupation? _____
8) What is your father's present present occupation? _____
9) In which type of family do you live in? (For Indian)
   a) Joint family b) Nuclear family
9) Do you live with both of your parents? a) Yes ____ b) No ____
10) What percentage of marks did you score in the previous semester/year?
   ____ a) 33-44% ____ b) 45-50% ____ c) 51-60%
   ____ d) 61-74% ____ e) 75% and above
11) What occupation do you think your mother wants you to have?
   _____
12) What occupation do you think your father wants you to have?
   _____
13) What occupation do you feel most of your teachers suggest you to have?
   _____

14. How far in school do you feel your mother, your father and many of your teachers suggest/want you to attain? (For each class, please mark an 'X' on the spaces to the left of the options)

Teachers	Mother	Father	
____	____	____	a) High school certificate
____	____	____	b) Vocational/technical certificate
____	____	____	c) Two-year college
____	____	____	d) Bachelor's degree
____	____	____	e) Master's degree
____	____	____	f) Ph.D. or equivalent
____	____	____	g) Don't know

Appendix-II

Sample Items from L.A. Coding Test

9

PART III

No. of Codes I expect to complete.....

मुझे आशा है कि मैं..... (संख्या लिखिए) चिन्ह हल कर लूंगा

.....مجھے توقع ہے کہ میں نشانات حل کرلوں گا (تعداد لکھئے)

KYE

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
+	=	/	√	?	::	×

÷	/	?	+	×	=	?	/	+	=	?	×	+	=	::	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	

/	::	+	=	√	×	?	×	√	+	×	=	::	/	√	
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	

+	/	√	?	×	+	?	?	+	=	?	×	√	::	√	
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	

÷	?	×	/	×	?	/	√	√	+	=	::	×	=	/	
46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	

=	?	+	?	::	×	√	/	+	×	√	?	?	::	×	
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	

No. of Codes I Completed.....

मैंने .... चिन्ह हल किये

(संख्या लिखिए)

.....نشانات حل کئے ..... میں نے

(تعداد لکھئے)

Appendix-III

Occupational Aspiration Scale

(2)

Question 1. Of the jobes listed in this question, which one is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN GET when your SCHOOLING IS OVER ?

1.1 .....Lawyer
1.2 .....Agriculture inspector
1.3 .....Doctor
1.4 .....Primary school teacher
1.5 .....Diplomat in the Indian foreign service
1.6 .....Barbar
1.7 .....Psychologist
1.8 .....Motor mechanic
1.9 .....Travelling salesman for a wholesale firm
1.10 .....Postman

Question 2. Of the jobs listed in this question which one would you choose if you were FREE TO CHOOSE ANY of them you wished when your SCHOOLING IS OVER ?

2.1 .....Govt. contractor
2.2 .....Insurance agent
2.3 .....Member of Parliament
2.4 .....Clerk in an office
2.5 .....State Governor
2.6 .....Maid servant
2.7 .....Owner-operator of a printing press
2.8 .....Electrician
2.9 .....Priest (Pujari)
2.10 .....Truck driver

Question 3. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose if you were FREE TO CHOOSE ANY OF them you wished when your SCHOOLING IS OVER ?

3.1 .....Airline hostess
3.2 .....Trained mechinist
3.3 .....Captain in the army
3.4 .....Midwife (Dai)
3.5 .....Supreme Court Justice
3.6 .....Restaurant waiter
3.7 ..... Instrumental musician
3.8 .....Machine operator in a factory
3.9 .....Librarian
3.10 .....Plumber

Question 4. Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose if you were FREE TO CHOOSE ANY OF them you wished when your SCHOOLING IS OVER ?

4.1 .....Novelist
4.2 .....Soldier in the army
4.3 .....Bank Manager
4.4 .....Taxi driver
4.5 .....Cabinet minister in the central government
4.6 .....Petrol pump attendant
4.7 .....Artist who paints pictures
4.8 .....Lady village level worker (Gram Sevika)
4.9 .....Photographer
4.10 .....Coal Miner

Appendix-III Contd.

(3)

Question 5. Of the jobs lists in this question, which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN HAVE by the time you are 30 years old ?

5.1 .....Dentist

5.2 .....Physical educational instructor

5.3 .....Scientist

5.4 .....Carpenter

5.5 .....Chairman of a large municipality

5.6 .....Wood cutter

5.7 .....Newspaper correspondent

5.8 .....Bus driver

5.9 .....Steno-typist to an officer

5.10 .....Farm worker

Question 6. Of the jobs listed in this question, which One would you choose to have when you are 30 YEARS OLD, if you were FREE TO HAVE ANY OF them you wished ?

6.1 .....Accountant for a large government office

6.2 .....Revenue record keeper (Patwari)

6.3 .....College lecturer

6.4 .....Fisherman

6.5 .....Director of a department in State Government

6.6 .....Night watchman (Chaukidar)

6.7 .....Radio announcer

6.8 .....Police constable

6.9 .....Receptionist

6.10 .....Railway signalman

Question 7. OF the jobs listed in this question, which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN HAVE by the time you are 30 YEARS OLD ?

7.1 .....Chemist

7.2 .....Nurse

7.3 .....Owner of a farm or factory which employes 100 people

7.4 .....Shop attendant

7.5 .....District magistrate

7.6 .....Shoe-shiner

7.7 .....Commercial artist

7.8 .....Typist

7.9 .....Social welfare worker

7.10 .....Cloth presser in a laundary

Question 8. Of the jobs listed in this question which ONE would you choose to have when you are 30 years Old, is you were FREE TO HAVE ANY of them you wished ?

8.1 .....Farm owner and operator

8.2 .....Railway guard

8.3 .....Engineer

8.4 .....Door-to-door salesman of home products

8.5 .....Airline pilot

8.6 .....Sweeper

8.7 .....Owner of a small hotel

8.8 .....Tailor

8.9 .....Cashier in a firm

8.10 .....Restaurant cook

Appendix-IV

Educational Aspiration Scale

E A S

DIRECTIONS:- The following questions concern your interest in different educational levels. There are six questions. Each one asks you to choose ONE educational level out of the 6 presented. Read each question carefully. They are all different. Answer each one the best you feel by placing a cross mark (X) against the educational level of your preference. Please do not omit any item.

1. It is time to think about the **level of education** most desirable to you. If you were ***completely free*** to choose any educational level you want to attain in the future **WITH OUT** having to consider limiting factors like money, abilities, and other opportunities, what would it be?

   ____ a) High school certificate
   ____ b) 10 +2
   ____ c) Diploma
   ____ d) Bachelor's degree.
   ____ e) Master's degree.
   ____ f) Ph.D.

2. Of the following educational levels listed, which is the **best one** and you are ***really sure you can attain,*** after considering limiting factors like money, your ability, and other opportunities?

   ____ a) High school certificate
   ____ b) 10 +2
   ____ c) Diploma
   ____ d) Bachelor's degree.
   ____ e) Master's degree.
   ____ f) Ph.D.

3. If you are **completely free** to choose among the following educational levels, what will be the ***lowest level of education*** you would be satisfied with?

   ____ a) High school certificate
   ____ b) 10 +2
   ____ c) Diploma
   ____ d) Bachelor's degree.
   ____ e) Master's degree.
   ____ f) Ph.D.

Appendix-IV Contd.

4. As *things stand now*, how far in education do you think you will go?

____ a) High school certificate
____ b) 10 +2
____ c) Diploma
____ d) Bachelor's degree.
____ e) Master's degree.
____ f) Ph.D.

5. If you were given a **complete freedom** to choose and attain any educational level, which of the following would you like to obtain when you are around 25 years of age?

____ a) High school certificate
____ b) 10 +2
____ c) Diploma
____ d) Bachelor's degree.
____ e) Master's degree.
____ f) Ph.D.

6. After considering the **realities of life** and your present situation, which of the following education levels is the **best one** and you are *really sure* of attaining, when you reach at around 25 years of age?

____ a) High school certificate
____ b) 10 +2
____ c) Diploma
____ d) Bachelor's degree.
____ e) Master's degree.
____ f) Ph.D.

Appendix-V

Questionnaire-2

QUESTIONNAIRE

It is interesting to know about the facilitating and constraining situations that may help or deter you from attaining your desired level of education/occupation. The factors may be within your self, such as your ability, interest or effort; in the home, neighbourhood or school; or in the existing political, structural or sociological conditions - plus many more others.

Direction: For the following two questions, please write any thing you feel are the factors responsible - please try to indicate specific factors.

1. What conditions do you think will facilitate the attainment of your aspired level of education/occupation?

1.1 Education	**1.2 Occupation**
a.....	a.....
b.....	b.....
c.....	c.....
d.....	d.....
e.....	e.....
f.....	f.....

2. What problems do you expect will hinder/restrict you from attaining your desired level of education/occupation?

2.1 Education	**2.2 Occupation**
a.....	a.....
b.....	b.....
c.....	c.....
d.....	d.....
e.....	e.....
f.....	f.....